Consumer Familiarity and Expertise

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An explorative study of readers of fiction

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An explorative study of readers of fiction

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Harold Miesen,
Tilburg, September 1999.

CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1

AIM AND CONTEXT OF THE STUDY

1.1 INTRODUCTION

Making use of consumer knowledge in order to cope with the information complexity of our daily marketing environment seems to be as self-evident as breathing in order to stay alive. And it almost is. In our daily marketing environment, we are confronted with an enormous amount of information in many different forms and selection becomes a necessity in order to cope with this overwhelming supply of information. Viewed from the information processing perspective adopted in this thesis, consumer knowledge - defined as a subset of total information relevant to a consumer's functioning in the market place - is an effective instrument that allows us to structure this overwhelming amount and variety of information and, subsequently, to simplify the process of choice. Consumer knowledge that is relevant to structuring the information environment and to simplifying the process of choice in a complex information environment is the object of the present study.

The consumer choice-environment of fiction is a context in which consumer knowledge is potentially quite helpful in simplifying the process of choice. On the one hand, the market of fiction is characterised by a huge and far-reaching fragmentation of the supply. On a yearly basis, thousands of novels are published. Edition figures show that these novels serve a diverse readership in all layers of the population (Gids Informatiesector, 1998). This fragmentation of supply and demand generates an enormous amount of diverse product information which makes filtering of product information as well as product alternatives by means of selection a necessity (van de Leur, 1995). Consumer knowledge is an effective instrument that can be applied to making selections from (information regarding) supply.

On the other hand, the market of cultural products is very dynamic: the supply changes continuously. As a result, consumer knowledge becomes obsolete in no time (Verdaasdonk, 1989). Consumer knowledge serving as a useful device in making selections from supply on the one hand, and that same consumer knowledge rapidly becoming obsolete on the other, makes fiction an interesting - but thus far unexplored - research object that lends itself well to research on consumer knowledge in complex decision-making environments. The objective of this study is to explore how consumer knowledge is obtained, maintained, and applied in the information environment of fiction. It is felt that this is an important step towards an understanding of consumer choice behaviour in complex decision-making environments in general, and cultural consumer behaviour in particular.

In this chapter, an introduction will be given to the present study. First, the general concept of consumer knowledge is explained in the context of consumer behaviour in order to identify the research problem and to indicate the scientific relevance of this study. Subsequently, the decision-making environment of fiction will be discussed and the reasons why studying consumer knowledge in this environment is of special interest, are elaborated on.

1.2 CONSUMER KNOWLEDGE AND CONSUMER BEHAVIOUR

1.2.1 A BIDIMENSIONAL ACCOUNT OF CONSUMER KNOWLEDGE: CONSUMER FAMILIARITY AND EXPERTISE

It is well-established that consumer knowledge about a given domain affects consumer choice behaviour (Schiffman and Kanuk, 1994) as a considerable amount of research has been conducted that supports this notion (see, for example, Johnson and Russo, 1984; Brucks, 1985; Biehal and Chakravarti, 1986; Bloch et al., 1986; Alba and Hutchinson, 1987; Kirschenbaum, 1992; Rao and Sieben, 1992; Hulland and Kleinmuntz, 1993; Fiske et al., 1994; de Bont and Schoormans, 1995). Attempts to explore the nature of consumer knowledge have revealed the consumer knowledge construct to be complex and multidimensional (Alba and Marmorstein, 1986; Alba and Hutchinson, 1987).

A widely-accepted explicitly bidimensional account of the consumer knowledge variable is proposed by Alba and Hutchinson (1987). They proposed that consumer knowledge consists of the components familiarity and expertise. Familiarity is defined by the authors as: "...the number of product-related experiences that have been accumulated by the consumer" where product-related experiences have been defined by Alba and Hutchinson (1987) at the most inclusive level. They include advertising exposure, information search, interactions with salespersons, choice and decision-making behaviour, purchasing and product usage and consumption in various situations.

Alba and Hutchinson (1987) define expertise in a consumer context as "the ability to perform product-related tasks successfully ". The authors use the term consumer expertise in a broad sense. It includes both the cognitive structures (e.g., beliefs about product (attributes)) and cognitive processes (e.g., rules for acting on those beliefs) required to perform product-related tasks successfully. In this study, the definitions of consumer familiarity and expertise developed by Alba and Hutchinson are taken as a starting point and elaborated on in the theoretical part of this thesis.[1] Since Alba and Hutchinson are not explicit in defining the domain of task performance, the product-related task performance is restricted in this thesis to decision-making. From this perspective, a typical

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[1] From this point onward, the term consumer knowledge refers to both consumer familiarity and expertise.

example of a product-related task in a consumer environment would be to come to a preference for one particular product. This task would be considered to have been performed successfully if the consumer actually draws the conclusion that one product is preferable to another alternative and decides to choose that product.

1.2.2 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CONSUMER FAMILIARITY AND EXPERTISE

Alba and Hutchinson (1987) proposed that an increase in consumer familiarity would result in the improvement of five qualitatively distinct aspects of expertise, namely the reduction of cognitive effort, the development of cognitive structure, and an increased ability to analyse, elaborate on, and remember product information.[2] Propositions regarding the relationships between consumer familiarity and these distinct 'aspects' of expertise are made on the basis of the assumption that, in general, expertise increases as familiarity increases: the more people engage in product-related behaviours, the more people learn from their behaviours, thus improving task performance by reducing cognitive effort (due to automatic performance) and develop a more refined, more complete, and more veridical cognitive structure (Alba and Hutchinson, 1987). Reduced cognitive effort and the cognitive structure in their turn will improve the consumer's ability to analyse, elaborate on, and remember product information (Alba and Hutchinson, 1987). In this thesis, the focus is limited to the cognitive structure as an aspect of consumer expertise. The basis for this choice is given in Chapter Two. It is believed that reduced cognitive effort is an effect of consumer expertise and, therefore, not an aspect of consumer expertise itself.

Although Alba and Hutchinson (1987) recognise that different product-related tasks require different types of expertise and that task performance is improved by different types of product-related experiences, no explicit attention is given to the question of how different types of product-related experiences may (or may not) relate to expertise. Instead, familiarity is treated as a unidimensional construct for which the relationship with expertise is assumed to be similar at the level of the individual consumer behaviours accumulated in the past. Moreover, familiarity is defined in terms of behaviours, whereas expertise is defined in terms of processes. If one wants to predict expertise by means of familiarity, Alba and Hutchinson's definition of the latter construct suggests that the number of behaviours is decisive in obtaining expertise, and not the types of behaviour.

Without doubt, familiarity in terms of the number of product-related experiences accumulated by the consumer allows one to make assumptions about the extent to which consumers may have internalised firsthand information of states, situations, emotions, or sensations with regard to the product. After all, product consumption and information-gathering behaviour are the primary means for obtaining consumer familiarity and expertise (Bettman, 1979; Johnson

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[2] For the argumentation of these propositions, see Alba and Hutchinson (1987).

and Russo, 1984; Sujan, 1985): consumers become familiar with and may learn[3] about brands and products through information obtained from these consumer behaviours.

However, some studies indicate that a strictly linear relationship between familiarity and expertise can be questioned (see e.g., Jacoby et al., 1986; Hoch and Deighton, 1989). In fact, Jacoby et al. (1986) stressed the conceptual orthogonality of familiarity and expertise by stating that one can have considerable amounts of experience in terms of familiarity, yet not have consumer expertise. For example, if a frequent consumer of pulp fiction merely reads fiction without much concern for the author of the book, making a selection on the basis of the attractiveness of the summary on the back cover may be a plausible strategy of choice. In this situation, the reader will pay no explicit attention to the title or the name of the author. If no attention is paid to the title or name of the author, the reading experiences eventually will not be linked to these product cues. Consequently, when it comes to future task performance, simplifying the choice process by tracking down other books by that same author, if desired, is no option. The consumer will lack the relevant expertise that is needed to do so, despite his/her familiarity with reading (pulp) fiction: simply engaging in the activity on a frequent base does not guarantee that additional expertise is gained.

In a similar manner, a passionate fan who mainly reads fiction by one and the same author would be very familiar with the activity of reading (that particular) fiction in terms of frequency of consumption behaviour. However, due to the very narrow consumption pattern or a lack of additional information gathering, little additional consumer expertise will have been gained that is of use in providing structure to the supply of product alternatives. On the other hand, a consumer whose purchase and consumption rate of fiction is much lower, but whose behaviour is less one-sided, may develop and exhibit considerable consumer expertise (Alba and Hutchinson, 1987). Since these consumers are exposed to a more differentiated product assortment, it is reasonable to expect that their expertise may be greater than that of consumers who have a one-sided consumption pattern.

Consumers with similar amounts of (usage) experience (familiarity) may also have learned different things about a product domain (expertise) (Brucks, 1985; Jacoby et al., 1986; Kanwar et al., 1990), whereas people with the same level of expertise may also have different levels of concrete product experiences (familiarity) (Jacoby et al., 1986). One consumer may be aware of the existence of a particular fiction title because s/he heard about it at a friends home whereas another consumer may already have been familiar with the work of that same author and became aware of a new fiction title on the basis of information read

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[3] Learning is referred to as the process by which a consumer's experience leads to relatively stable changes in consumer knowledge, attitudes, and/or behaviour (Boekaerts and Simons, 1995; Engel et al., 1995).

in the mass media. In both situations, the consumer is aware of the new fiction title, as well as the name of the author who wrote it. Yet, the type and number of product-related experiences differs, as well as the sources from which the information was obtained.

What the previous examples suggest is that familiarity in terms of behaviour is a necessary though unsufficient condition for developing expertise (Hoch and Deighton, 1989), and if consumer knowledge is developed, it is contingent upon the concrete consumer behaviours. In other words, if consumers engage in consumer behaviour, they will become familiar with that behaviour. The expertise learned from this behaviour, is also dependent on the concrete product-related experiences gained in the past, and is thus related to the familiarity of the consumer. These aspects of consumer familiarity and expertise are key elements in the theoretical part of this thesis and serve as a guideline throughout the subsequent chapters.

Despite these considerations, very little attention in consumer research is given to the question of whether there are several qualitatively distinct aspects of familiarity that may or may not relate to (and improve) expertise. Nor, given this is the case, is much effort focussed on the question of how familiarity as part of consumer knowledge relates to expertise. Instead, the focus has been on the impact of consumer knowledge on information-gathering behaviour. From a marketing-communication perspective, it is not surprising that this field of study has been one of the most popular ones (see, for example, Johnson and Russo, 1984; Rao and Sieben, 1992; Perkins and Rao, 1990; Hulland and Kleinmuntz, 1994; Brucks, 1985; Fiske et al., 1994). Consumer knowledge is regarded as facilitating easier and more efficient processing of (product) information, due to the increased ability to analyse, remember, and elaborate on product information (Johnson and Russo, 1984; Alba and Hutchinson, 1987; Shanteau, 1992). However, information-gathering behaviour practised in the past is indicative of the familiarity a consumer has, the latter being an integral part of consumer knowledge. Neglecting this aspect of consumer knowledge might lead to engaging in a circular reasoning. The researcher might wind up examining the relationship between information-gathering behaviour at time t by means of consumer knowledge (operationalised as consumer expertise) even though that same dependent variable is part of consumer knowledge at time t. Similarly, by relying on the assumption that increased familiarity will result in increased expertise, operationalisations of consumer knowledge might be applied that do not cover all aspects of the definition. This is particularly problematic if aspects of consumer behaviour - other than consumer knowledge itself - are studied in relation to consumer knowledge such as consumer product evaluations (see, for example, de Bont and Schoormans, 1995), price acceptability studies (Rao and Sieben, 1992), and decision-making behaviour (see Hulland and Kleinmuntz, 1994). Finally, the assumption of an undifferentiated linear relationship between consumer familiarity and expertise does not challenge the researcher to examine whether and how different types of product-related experiences accumulated by

the consumer in the past relate to consumer expertise in the context of a complex decision-making environment.

These considerations result in the following preliminary research questions: *"What is the dimensionality of consumer familiarity in a complex decision-making environment; and what is the relationship between consumer familiarity and expertise in a complex decision-making environment?"*

In the next sections, specific attention is given to the research area. First, for the purpose of positioning consumer knowledge in the context of decision-making, the decision-making process of readers of fiction is discussed. It should be noted that it is not decision-making behaviour but consumer knowledge in the context of decision-making that was studied. Two points are made clear in the following: the decision-making environment of fiction is a complex information environment and consumers of fiction can handle the decision-making complexity in the decision-making environment of fiction in many different ways. Since consumer knowledge is contingent upon the concrete consumer behaviours engaged in, differences in consumer knowledge will occur depending on the way in which consumers choose to deal with this decision-making complexity. As a consequence, the dimensionality of familiarity and its relationship with expertise is questionable. Second, it is suggested that patterns of product-related experiences conducted in the past (consumer familiarity) and levels of expertise may differ between consumers of fiction, depending on their involvement with reading fiction, and the motivation and ability to process product information. Finally, the final research questions are presented.

1.3 CONSUMER DECISION-MAKING REGARDING FICTION

The complexity of the decision-making task has been recognised as an important factor in determining a broad range of consumer behaviours in a consumer choice environment (Bettman, 1979; Payne et al., 1993), ranging from information-gathering behaviour to choice behaviour. One and the same consumer will use many different strategies in making a decision, contingent upon factors such as the number of alternatives to choose from, how information is displayed, and the complexity of the problem (Payne et al., 1993). Based on Payne et al. (1993), decision-making complexity is defined as the degree to which decision-problem characteristics of the product environment of fiction encourages or impedes the processing of information of product alternatives. Starting from the assumption that consumer familiarity and expertise are contingent upon concrete consumer behaviours conducted in the past (Bettman, 1979; Johnson and Russo, 1984; Sujan, 1985), it is argued that the characteristics of the decision-making environment of fiction are a major source of response effects that affect consumer familiarity and expertise through concrete consumer

behaviour. These response effects lead us to questioning a unidimensional account of familiarity and an undifferentiated linear relationship between familiarity and expertise.

1.3.1 CHARACTERISTICS OF THE DECISION-MAKING ENVIRONMENT OF FICTION

Two main categories of sources are distinguished that affect the complexity of the decision task regarding fiction: decision-problem characteristics of the market of fiction, and decision-problem characteristics of fiction itself.

1.3.1.1 Decision-problem characteristics of the market of fiction

The complexity of the decision task in the field of fiction is influenced by decision-problem characteristics, typical of the market of fiction. Consumer familiarity and expertise are expected to be a function of these characteristics. The characteristics determine the decision task complexity, and have consequences for the way in which consumers act (Payne et al., 1993) and what, if any, consumer familiarity and expertise is formed. The most important (task) variable in the market of fiction is the number of alternatives available.

The number of alternatives available. In the theoretical introduction, it was indicated that there is a huge and fragmented supply of fiction which is a first characteristic of the market. In March 1998, the title supply in the Netherlands in the category of fiction fluctuated around twelve thousand (Gids Informatiesector, 1998). A closer look at the distribution of fiction according to genre category, shows that in 1998 about nine thousand literary fiction titles were available, as opposed to only about one thousand romance novels and two thousand mystery novels (Gids informatiesector, 1998). In 1997, literary fiction took 22.1% of the total returns, whereas romantic fiction and mystery/suspense[4] novels took 5.2% and 14.0%, respectively (Gids Informatiesector, 1998). Although the turnover percentages reveal that literary fiction is the most popular genre category in the Netherlands, the turnover percentages of romantic fiction and mystery novels cannot be ignored, compared to literary fiction: all three genre categories serve a substantial reading audience. Since consumers have limited ability and opportunity - and often limited motivation - to process information (MacInnis and Jaworski, 1989; Poiesz, 1989; MacInnis et al., 1991), cultural consumers are forced to make selections from this differentiated supply by means of simplified decision heuristics. Consequently, not all information is processed and not all alternatives are taken into consideration by the individual consumer. Making selections from supply of titles has as a consequence that individual differences in consumer familiarity and expertise will occur. These differences depend on the way in which consumers handle or deal with the decision-making complexity

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[4] From this point on, mystery/suspense will be referred to as mystery novels.

and choose from supply.

The turnover percentages of the three genre categories are not in proportion with supply. The supply of literary fiction in 1998 was nine times as high as that of romantic fiction and four and a half times as high as the supply of mystery novels. Since the size of the supply of literary fiction is much larger than that of romantic fiction and mystery novels, it would be expected that the decision-making complexity of the choice environment of the former genre category is greater than the decision-making complexity of the latter two genre categories. However, other factors that are characteristic of the market may affect this intuitive assumption. The supply of romance and mystery novels is more often characterised by the publishing of series, a much less common feature in literature, which facilitates subsequent choice: the consumer simply buys the next fiction title (that is published) in the series. Literature, in turn, is characterised by disproportionate attention in the media, compared to romance and mystery novels. Yet, though the complexity of the decision-making environment according to genre may be compensated by factors other than absolute number of supply, these observations suggest that the decision-making complexity may differ according to the genre category. Since the complexity of the decision-making environment in terms of genre category has consequences for the way in which consumers act and consequently what, if any, consumer familiarity and expertise is formed, consumer knowledge may differ according to genre category preference of the consumer as well.

The rapidly changing supply. A second decision-problem characteristic that affects consumer familiarity and expertise is that the market of fiction is very dynamic: the supply of alternatives is continuously changing. If we take a look at the title production of Dutch publishing houses, the figures show that in 1995 about eleven thousand new fiction titles were produced (Gids Informatiesector, 1998). This number did not change significantly in 1996. As a consequence of this rapidly changing supply, consumer knowledge about current supply very rapidly becomes obsolete (Verdaasdonk, 1989). Therefore, it would be expected that the dynamic nature of the market may affect consumer behaviour by prompting the consumer to either stay informed about supply on a regular basis, to engage in completely new consumer search every time a purchase need is present, or to make use of simplified decision rules or heuristics, for example, by relying on previous reading experiences by selecting books by one and the same author. Depending on the concrete behaviours consumers (choose to) exhibit in dealing with this aspect of the decision-making complexity, consumer familiarity and expertise will differ accordingly.

1.3.1.2 Decision-problem characteristics of fiction titles

Though staying informed about the supply of titles on a regular basis or engaging in new consumer search to deal with the complexity of the market of

fiction are ways to decrease the decision-making complexity, it is not completely sufficient to simplify decision-making and to guarantee successful choice. The decision-making complexity is also affected by characteristics of fiction itself. Fiction is regarded as a typically hedonic product (Hirschman and Holbrook, 1982). Fiction is different from more 'classical' consumer products in a sense that the focus is on the consumption process itself and less on the outcomes of the consumption process (Hirschman and Holbrook, 1982; Stokmans, 1998). Based on the original definition given by Hirschman and Holbrook (1982), hedonic consumption is defined here as "...the consumption process in which the goal of consumption is primarily oriented towards the multi-sensory, fantasy and emotive aspects (of the outcome) of the act of consumption". Fiction usually serves to inspire, to stimulate the generation of thoughts, feelings, and images in the consumer's mind (Hoeken and van Vliet, 1995).[5] Outcomes of hedonic consumption such as increased (consumer) knowledge may serve experiential and utilitarian goals but these are often secondary. Given these considerations, and based on Payne et al. (1993), completeness of information in the choice environment and similarity of alternatives are introduced as typical decision-problem characteristics of fiction. Contingent decision-making behaviour as a function of completeness of information and similarity of alternatives is discussed thoroughly in Payne et al. (1993).

Completeness of information. Strictly speaking, an accurate expectation of the consumption experience to be obtained from consumption of fiction can be made only after the fiction title has been consumed (Leemans and Stokmans, 1992; Leemans, 1994). To decide upon the quality of the consumption experience prior to choice, two categories of properties are of importance, namely search qualities and experience qualities (Nelson, 1970; 1974). Nelson (1974) describes search qualities as qualities of a product that can be evaluated prior to purchase using prior (consumer) knowledge, direct product inspection of available and observable product cues and normal channels of information acquisition such as other persons and consumer reports. Typical examples of search qualities are the font size, the quality of the paper used to print the text on, or the thickness of the book cover. These qualities can easily be observed, checked and evaluated by the consumer prior to purchase.

Those qualities that cannot always be inferred directly from the product before - or even necessarily after - consumption are referred to as experience qualities. Experience qualities are those qualities of a product that can be evaluated only after the product has been purchased and consumed. As is the case with most

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5 The position taken here is that the quality of the consumption experience sought is not within the hedonic product itself, but is to be generated by the individual while consuming the product (Leemans and Stokmans, 1992). However, the hedonic product itself has certain features that are needed in order to evoke a reading experience in the mind of the reader.

cultural products, the consumption experience is, preeminently, an experience quality for which information is available only after the cultural product has been consumed (Leemans, 1994). Clearly, the consumer's ability to evaluate search qualities prior to purchase is higher than for experience qualities. Since experience qualities are more central to the consumption of fiction but at the same time more difficult to evaluate due to 'incomplete' information in the decision-making context at the time of choice, the decision task is assumed to be more complex for fiction then for the more 'classical' consumer products (such as microwave ovens) which are usually the focus of study in consumer research. How this characteristic affects consumer behaviour, and consequently consumer knowledge, is a topic discussed in section 1.3.2.1.

Similarity of alternatives. The evaluation of experience qualities of fiction prior to purchase is further complicated by the observation that, technical speaking, no two fiction titles are alike. The satisfactory consumption of one fiction title in the past does not guarantee a 100% satisfactory consumption of another fiction title with similar search qualities (for example, that it belongs to the same genre category and deals with the same theme) in the future. Typical for the field of fiction is that the choice task will be rather unfamiliar in the sense that a rule for solving the problem of choice cannot be readily drawn from memory as is the case with a simple rebuy. Since people are not likely to buy the same fiction title more than once (Leemans and Stokmans, 1992; Gids Informatiesector, 1998), simply rebuying the same product is out of the question. The consumer, therefore, is faced with a new choice problem - though it is, of course, not completely new, otherwise consumer knowledge would be of no use - every time a new fiction title has to be selected.[6] Given that fiction titles usually are obtained on a regular basis - at least more regularly than consumer durables (Leemans and Stokmans, 1992) - consumers are confronted with a relatively complex decision-making environment every time a choice has to be made. Again, the way in which consumers deal with this complex decision- making environment, affects consumer familiarity and expertise.

1.3.2 THE ROLE OF CONSUMER KNOWLEDGE IN THE DECISION-MAKING PROCESS OF READERS OF FICTION

A central thought in the previous sections was that, since consumer familiarity and expertise are contingent upon concrete consumer behaviour, differences in consumer knowledge will occur, depending on the way in which consumers deal with the decision-making complexity. How consumer knowledge relates to the

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[6] An exception of course is buying a copy of a book that the consumer has read to pass on to a friend or rebuying a fiction title as a replacement. In general, however, fiction titles are purchased only once (although they may be consumed several times).

way in which consumers may handle the decision-making complexity of fiction is the central topic of this section.

1.3.2.1 Observable product cues and inference-making

It is elementary that, when a product possesses mainly experience qualities, the consumer is committed to use the limited number of observable product cues (e.g., author, title, size, number of pages, typeface or cover, but also characteristics such as actual design and, in particular, the contents and style of writing) to infer the expected value of the experience quality 'reading experience'. In order to illustrate this assumption, the distinction between the qualities a product possesses, the product cues a consumer uses to infer information about these qualities, and the consumer's valuation of the product (cues) (Riezebos, 1994) will be used. The Lens model (Brunswik, 1955), as depicted in Figure 1.1, is based on this distinction.[7]

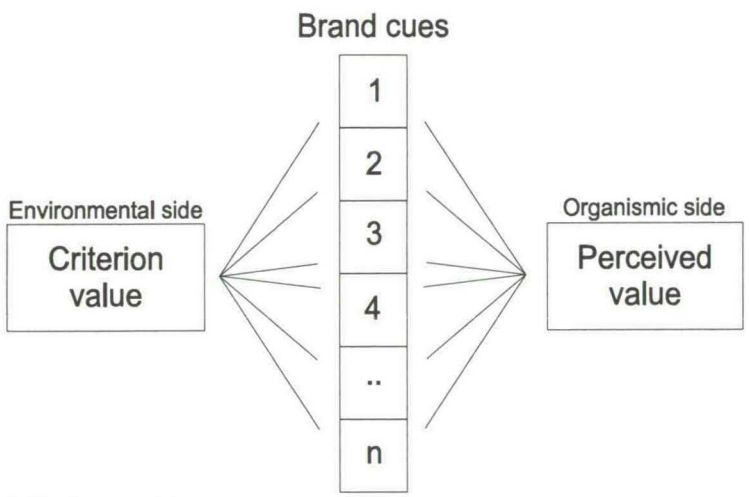

Figure 1.1: The Lens model

[7] Steenkamp (1989) made a similar distinction between cues, which are direct observable characteristics of the product, and attributes, which are the perceptual counterparts of the cues (in Stokmans, 1991). In a similar fashion, Van Raaij (1977; 10) distinguished objective attributes or characteristics that are objectively present in the product perceived as such by the consumers, and subjective attributes, which have an objective counterpart in the product: the psychological perception of a physical attribute.

In the Lens model, an explicit distinction is made between the criterion values on the environmental side and the individual's responses to these criterion values on the organismic side. The criterion values are the true values[8] of the stimulus qualities as they exist in the external environment (in this thesis, the properties of the text that will evoke a reading experience). The consumer's responses to these values are the meanings attached to these qualities by the consumer (for example, the conclusion that the fiction title will likely produce a satisfying reading experience). In the Lens model, the environmental side and the organismic side are separated by a double convex lens. The Lens consists of observable product cues from which a consumer makes inferences about the search and experience qualities. Product information cues include all types of information ranging from information about a novel in a book review to the name of the author on a book cover. Lee and Olshavsky (1994) defined inferences as involving both the process of generating information that goes beyond the perceived information as well as the outcome of this process. As a process, it involves a sequence of cognitive operations that precede and generate the inferential outcome. As an outcome, it may be the resulting affective judgment (e.g., I like the theme of this book) or a cognitive statement (belief: the author is famous) that bears on the target object (the fiction title).

There is a vast amount of research available on the process of inference-making but as this is not a point of interest here, no further discussion need to be provided.[9] The focus of the current study is on the consumer knowledge that serves as an input of the inference-making process. Therefore, it suffices to state that consumer knowledge, as well as information obtained from additional search, serves as input to the inference-making process (Bettman, 1979; Alba and Hutchinson, 1987; Lee and Olshavsky, 1994). Additionally, it is assumed that the consumer of fiction uses observable product cues to make inferences about the experience qualities by means of a strategy that is most likely to produce the best inference.

1.3.2.2 Selection and valuation of product cues: The role of consumer knowledge and additional information gathering

The literature suggests that the selection and valuation of information items is affected by the decision maker's prior consumer knowledge (Alba and Hutchinson, 1987; Payne et al., 1993; Lee and Olshavsky, 1994): the selection

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[8] The true values are the qualities that a product possesses and are similar to the search and experience qualities distinguished by Nelson (1970); from this point on the terms criterion value and qualities will be used interchangeably.

[9] Interested readers are referred to the work on inference making (see, for example, Alba and Hutchinson, 1987; Sujan and Dekleva, 1987; Dick et al., 1990; Smith, 1991; Thomas, 1992; Lee and Olshavsky, 1994).

and valuation of product cues, information sources, as well as information obtained from those sources, will occur in the light of available prior consumer knowledge. For fiction, the process of cue selection and valuation may occur in different ways, depending on the available consumer knowledge. However, this process is also partly guided by some additional characteristics of the market of fiction, as well as characteristics of fiction itself. To illustrate these suppositions, it is assumed that the consumer enters the public library or bookstore without having the intention of choosing (one) particular fiction title(s) prior to entering the store. This situation is very common for readers of fiction (Leemans, 1994).

Libraries and bookstores structure the supply by categorising fiction according to genre.[10] This is where an important individual difference variable enters that may mediate consumer response, that is the consumer's prior consumer knowledge. If someone prefers reading mystery novels to literature, this preference is likely to initially guide consumer behaviour. As a consequence, consumer are likely to make a first selection by means of the genre classification: depending on their genre preferences, consumers will move towards the corresponding bookshelves.

Fiction titles usually are presented with the spine of the cover facing the consumer, making product information cues present on the back of the cover available and easier to process, thus affecting decision-making behaviour directly (Payne et al., 1993). Cues on (the spine of) the cover usually limit themselves to the title of the book, the name of the author, and name of the publishing house. These cues are the first to be observed and the most likely to be used next in the process of inference-making and selection. Since within each genre category fiction titles are ordered alphabetically according to the name of the author, the name of author is a prominent product cue that is very likely to be utilised in the process of choice.

Internal search: Relying on information stored in memory. Given the characteristics of the decision-making environment of fiction, consumer knowledge will initially be retrieved from memory in the task context of making choices in order to select and value observable product cues (Bettman, 1979): if the search for information from an external source was not feasible prior to entering the library or bookstore, or if consumers did not desire to engage in an external search for some other reason, they may generate an inference on the spot based on prior (consumer) knowledge. While scanning the bookshelves, for example, a familiar author name may draw the consumers' attention. The inference 'this author is famous, so s/he probably is a good writer' might be generated and help consumers in deciding whether or not this given fiction title

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10 With the exception of display tables in which fiction titles are positioned with the front of the cover towards the consumer. We will proceed from the situation in which there is either no display table present or the books on the display table do not appeal to the consumer.

is worth considering reading. In the same vein, an avoidance reaction may be the result (previously read work by that author was not liked). Consumers than may start paying attention to another alternative that has valuable product cues that provide for a starting point for the inference-making process (for example, by concentrating on familiar names of authors).

If the consumer has already become familiar with work by an author that was liked before - for example, because the style of writing was appreciated - the name of the author of a specific fiction title may be a very influential product information cue. Consumers may infer that a book will be liked based on the inference that the author delivers a more or less consistent quality (at least in terms of style of writing). This heuristic is a very powerful one and to a large extent resembles brand loyalty (Leemans, 1994): consumers who are very pleased with a specific brand are likely to repurchase a product of that same brand in order to simplify choice, to reduce the risk of a bad choice, and to maintain the standard they were satisfied with in the past.

In the example given above, it was assumed that a first selection is made on the basis of the author's name. Subsequently, the title, the summary on the back, and other information on the cover may be valued. This valuation will also occur in the light of consumer knowledge. If the title and/or the summary on the back of the book are appealing, consumers may either decide to choose the book based on the assumption that the author delivers a more or less constant quality on different aspects such as writing style. In this situation, prior reading experiences as part of consumer knowledge interact with the observable product cues (for example, name of author). Consumer knowledge is then decisive as a source of information in the process of choice. If a decision is made not to choose the fiction title, consumers may proceed with search in a similar fashion, repeating the steps of cue selection and valuation for each subsequent alternative.[11]

In the previous examples, consumers made use of the name of the author as a product cue to infer the quality of the reading experiences. However, if the consumers are not familiar with the (names of) authors, or if consumers have read all of the works of fiction by the authors they are familiar with, an initial choice has to be made on the basis of the appeal of the title, the cover, or the summary on the back of the book, to name a few examples. The inference that a more or less similar - and thus predictable - reading experience is to be expected on the basis of a particular cue, can also be applied at the theme and genre levels. The reader of pulp fiction may be less concerned with the author's identity than

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[11] It is assumed that information processing regarding fiction has a sequential structure given the fact that fiction titles are usually presented to the consumer in bookshelves with the spine of the cover facing the consumer. This makes a simultaneous evaluation of alternatives very difficult. An exception to this is the use of displays and tables on which the front cover faces upwards towards the consumer.

the book's belonging to a specific genre because of its predictable contents and story line. In this situation, decisions are more likely to be made on the spot based on other product cues such as genre icons placed on the cover of the book, as is done in public libraries and by certain publishers, the title of the book, and the summary on the back cover. These consumers may not direct and facilitate their search by making a preselection on the basis of name of the author. Instead, they will be satisfied more quickly based on the assumption (the inference) that, in general, fiction belonging to that category will deliver constant quality and thus meets their expectations. Subsequently, the consumer knowledge that is put forward into the process of choice is different from the knowledge that is applied if the name of author is taken as a decisive product information cue. In both cases, however, internal consumer knowledge is at the basis of choice.

In the examples discussed above, in summary, prior reading experiences as the internal source of consumer knowledge interacts with additional information obtained in the retail setting (genre classification, name of the author, title, and summary on the back). These two sources of information are then decisive in the context of choice. As such, a choice can be made by generating an inference on the basis of information stored in memory, for example, prior reading experiences. Choice behaviour is not preceded by elaborate external information-gathering behaviour.

External search: Acquisition of information from sources other than memory. If the consumer concludes that s/he does not have enough internal knowledge present to select and value available product cues and to engage in accurate inference-making based on these cues, an (complementary) external search for information may be conducted prior to entering the bookstore. Typical information sources, in addition to own reading experiences and information present in the retail setting, are the opinions of friends, book reviews, and advertisements. Information obtained from these sources can be used to select and value observable fiction product cues when making inferences in a choice environment.

At the personal level, and given a genre preference, the consumer can either ask for and receive advice at the author level (for example, I really like the work of King. You should try him), or at the level of individual titles (for example, I can really advise you to read Grisham's The Jury). The consumer can use this information in the retail setting to guide searches by following the steps described in the previous paragraph, which focussed on internal search for information. If product advice is obtained from these sources, it is essential that the consumer at least has some recollection of the name of the author. This is necessary to either track down the name of the author actively or to recognise the name of the author when in a public library or bookstore. The consumer knowledge that interacts with information in the retail setting is not based on own previous reading experiences, but on advice of others.

Information can also be obtained from book reviews and advertisements.

These sources can be consulted independently, or serve as supplemental information obtained through interpersonal communication. They are characterised by a high level of topicality. Normally, attention is paid to newly-published books and as such this information is highly useful in staying informed about recent supply. Due to the enormous publishing rates, only a select number of fiction titles actually receives mass-media attention. This media-attention is disproportionate and favours literary fiction. The impact of mass-media sources on consumer decision-making is, therefore, likely to be higher for literary fiction than for romance and mystery novels. As such, both mass media and interpersonal sources of information are the products of information screening by the provider of the information. If consumers rely on these sources when making a choice, the range of products from which to choose is reduced by the provider of the information to a more manageable number of fiction titles, facilitating the choice problem of consumers but also guiding the problem solving of these consumers.

It is plausible that consumers will select the external source according to a perceived similarity in taste. Consumers will probably request or search for information from other individuals who are known to have similar preferences and tastes. Similarly, consumers are more likely to follow a critic's recommendation if that critic has proven to have tastes similar to their own. For both categories of information sources, it is important that they cover the genre categories of fiction the consumer is interested in. Consumers who are fans of science fiction are unlikely to ask advice from a person who only reads literary fiction. Similarly, consumers who read pulp fiction will gain little by consulting mass-media sources if no attention is paid to the genre category of interest. Therefore, not all information sources are likely to be equally suitable to inform a given individual about fiction: the sources of information consulted by consumers of fiction may differ according to perceived applicability.

In addition to the perceived applicability of the information, the information also has to be available. Information stored in memory is usually at hand and even if some particular information cannot be recalled in the decision-making environment, other information available in memory may guide decision-making behaviour. This availability is lower for sources such as friends and magazines, and not always at hand if consumers are faced with a choice problem.

The amount of effort that is required to obtain information from any of these external sources may differ as well and may affect which sources are used in decision-making. Making use of prior consumer knowledge is a very reliable and cost-saving option that automatically interacts with information in the retail setting (for example, product cues). Decisions can then be made on the spot by inspecting observable product cues. These cues can be selected and valued in the light of available consumer knowledge. Interpersonal communication is somewhat more labour intensive. Moreover, a certain minimal effort is required to memorise or write down either the name of the author obtained in interpersonal communication and/or the specific fiction title that is

recommended. Finally, mass-media usage requires the greatest effort in terms of behavioural as well as mental energy. The consumer has to make an effort to obtain a (print) media that contains either book reviews or advertisements and energy has to be put into reading the information. Here, too, either the author's name or the title of the books has to be committed to memory or written down in order to be able to find the fiction title in the bookstore or the library.

Based on the assumption that consumer familiarity and expertise are contingent upon concrete consumer behaviour, consumer behaviour and consumer familiarity and expertise will differ depending on the availability of information sources, the suitability of information sources, and the amount of effort the consumer is willing to invest to obtain information from these sources. The factors which may determine the willingness to put behavioural effort into the total decision-making process, and whether or not consumers learn from this effort is the subject of the final section of this chapter.

1.4 CONSUMER CHARACTERISTICS AFFECTING CONSUMER KNOWLEDGE OF FICTION

1.4.1 CONSUMER FAMILIARITY AND INVOLVEMENT WITH (READING) FICTION

Consumer familiarity was defined as the number of product-related experiences accumulated by the consumer, and as such, concrete action on the consumer's part is at the basis of familiarity. Traditionally, involvement with a product (class) or an activity has been regarded as a driving force behind concrete action: it directly affects the motivation to engage in (overt) consumption and information-gathering behaviour (e.g., Bettman, 1979; Laurent and Kapferer, 1985; Zaichkowsky, 1985; Bloch et al., 1986; Beatty and Smith, 1987). As such, involvement with fiction is perceived to be a determinant of the amount of effort that is put into the process of choice, as well as the desire to stay informed about fiction on a regular basis. If consumers are only mildly involved with reading fiction and merely read fiction to kill time without much consideration being given to what is being read, it is less likely that elaborate decision-making or search activities will be engaged in. However, if consumers are very involved with reading fiction, they probably will be motivated to put effort into the process of choice and increase their information gathering and consumption of works of fiction, thus, directly determining consumer familiarity.

Product class involvement as such may be sufficient to induce large and varied amounts of consumption and information-gathering activities, resulting in differences in familiarity. However, the type of consumption and information-gathering behaviour may also be affected by genre category preference. In the previous section, it was argued that the availability and the suitability of different sources of information about fiction may differ, depending on the genre category preference of the consumer. Consequently, consumer familiarity may differ

according to product class involvement as well as genre category preference. A more in-depth discussion of these presuppositions is given in Chapter Two.

1.4.2 THE EFFECT OF MOTIVATION, ABILITY, AND OPPORTUNITY ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CONSUMER FAMILIARITY AND EXPERTISE

Whether or not consumers learn consumer expertise from their consumption and information-gathering behaviour - or whether the perceived product-related information is transformed into a cognitive representation in memory or not - depends on the motivation, ability and opportunity to process information deeply (Alba and Hutchinson, 1987; Hoch and Deighton, 1989; MacInnis and Jaworski, 1989; Poiesz, 1989; MacInnis et al., 1991). Consumers must have the motivation to process information deeply, the ability to understand the information, and they should have the opportunity to process the information in the consumer environment. These three conditions are regarded as the necessary and sufficient conditions for the successful processing of information (Poiesz, 1989; 1991). Since research is usually focussed on the effectiveness of marketing communication, motivation is described by MacInnis et al. (1991) as: "the consumers' desire or readiness to process brand information in an ad". In the context of information-gathering behaviour regarding fiction, motivation is defined as the desire or readiness to process product information in the product environment of fiction. If the consumer lacks the motivation to process product information (deeply), the likelihood that perceived product information as a consequence of concrete consumer behaviour will be transformed into a cognitive presentation of the information in memory (read consumer expertise), is slight (Poiesz, 1989; MacInnis et al. 1991; Hoch and Deighton, 1989). If this is the case, consumers will not develop expertise, even though their familiarity with the activity of choosing and/or reading fiction is profound.

Ability is defined by MacInnis et al. (1991) as: "the consumer's skills or proficiencies in interpreting brand information in an ad". This description implies that the availability and the accessibility of product-related consumer knowledge structures are at the basis of information processing competence. In marketing communication, the focus is on whether consumers are capable of understanding the aspects of a message on the basis of their prior consumer knowledge. If consumer knowledge is regarded in the context of (choosing) fiction, the completion of ability differs from the traditional definition. This study is limited to consumer knowledge in a decision-making environment and does not focus on marketing communication. If the consumer is to benefit from consumption behaviour and information-gathering behaviour with regard to future choice, ability should refer to the consumers' skill or proficiency in memorising and evaluating product information cues regarding fiction titles for future choice. If consumers read a book and really like it, or if consumers want to rely on the recommendation of a friend, they will benefit from an increased ability to memorise (the relevance of) product information cues such as the name

of the author and/or title of the book. The relationship between consumer familiarity and expertise is, thus, more likely to be present if the degree of ability is high. This topic is dealt with in Chapter Two.

The opportunity to process information is determined by "the extent to which distraction or limited exposure-time affect consumers' attention to brand information in an ad" (MacInnis et al., 1991). In research on information processing, the focus is on distraction and limited exposure time with regard to information processing (Batra and Ray, 1986). The effect of (limited) opportunity on information processing is usually studied in experimental settings by manipulating opportunity and examining the effect of the manipulation on task performance, for example, the ability to memorise brand names in a magazine. Since choosing and reading fiction as a spare time activity usually occurs under conditions of high opportunity (otherwise the consumer would not engage in it as a form of leisure time), the effect of opportunity on the relationship between familiarity and expertise is regarded as less influential as the effect of motivation and ability. When consumers read a book, there is sufficient time to memorise the name of the author, the story line, or an overall evaluation of the book. Moreover, the extent to which readers of fiction take time to read fiction may vary over time and a possible effect of opportunity on the relationship between familiarity and expertise may diminish over time. Therefore, opportunity is not given further attention, nor taken into account in subsequent chapters. Instead, the focus is on motivation and ability as conditions that are expected to affect the relationship between consumer familiarity and expertise.[12] In short, if the consumer engages in the activity of choosing and reading fiction under conditions of low motivation and ability, no intended memory effects are to be expected from these encounters with product information (MacInnis et al., 1991). If this is the case, familiarity will not relate to expertise. If motivation and ability are high, the relationship between consumer familiarity and expertise is expected to be more linear. A more thorough discussion of the effect of involvement on consumer familiarity and the effect of motivation, and ability on the relationship between familiarity and expertise is given in Chapter Two.

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[12] The conditions for (successful) information processing also apply to the process of retrieval. In a choice situation, in other words, the consumer must have sufficient motivation, ability and opportunity to retrieve product-relevant consumer information from memory (Poiesz, 1989). Poiesz (1989), therefore, makes an explicit distinction between a processing triad and an application triad. In the former situation, the triad of motivation, ability and opportunity apply to the storage of consumer information in memory, in the latter the triad is about the retrieval of consumer information stored in memory for making a decision to buy a certain product. If output is available from the processing triad, this output forms input for the application triad in the choice environment, guiding choice behaviour.

1.5 OUTLINE OF THIS THESIS

Thus far it has been argued that, due to the characteristics of fiction, as well as its market, there are many different ways in which consumers of fiction can deal with the assumed decision-making complexity of fiction and position consumer knowledge in the decision-making process, in order to make inferences. Since familiarity and expertise are contingent upon concrete consumer behaviour conducted in the past, consumer knowledge will differ depending on the way in which consumers choose to handle the decision-making environment complexity. As a result, the dimensionality of familiarity and its relationship with expertise is questioned. It was further stated that the dimensionality of familiarity may differ according to consumers' involvement with reading fiction, whereas its relationship with expertise may differ with the consumers' motivation and ability to process information regarding fiction (deeply).

The purpose of this thesis is twofold. A first aim is to develop and describe a framework for studying the dimensionality of familiarity and its relationship with expertise while the second goal is to explore the dimensionality of familiarity and its relationship with expertise in the field of fiction. To this end, the existing consumer literature was explored to find a starting point for investigating the research questions under consideration. On the basis of the existing literature, a preliminary answer was sought regarding the assumed dimensionality of familiarity, its relationship with involvement, the relationship between familiarity and expertise, and the effect of motivation and ability on this relationship.

By checking the two preliminary research questions posed in section 1.2.2, as well as the characteristics of the decision-making environment of fiction distinguished in section 1.3.1, the further characteristics of this thesis are outlined. Subsequently, the definitive research questions will be formulated.

The question of how to conceptualise and measure consumer knowledge with fiction, receives a substantial amount of attention in the following two chapters. The framework is described which was used in investigating the research problems. The literature on consumer knowledge is explored and two major research paradigms are discussed that reflect on consumer knowledge. The research paradigms are the social-cultural approach and the information processing approach. The information processing approach is elaborated on in order to construct a framework that is of use in investigating consumer knowledge regarding fiction. On the basis of the review of the literature, a definition of consumer knowledge is formulated and presented in the following chapter.

Once consumer knowledge regarding fiction has been sufficiently conceptualised, the dimensionality of familiarity according to involvement with fiction is examined. Subsequently, the relationship between familiarity and expertise is studied and the effect of motivation and ability on this relationship is determined.

1.5.1 TENTATIVE RESEARCH QUESTIONS

The focus of the present study is on consumer knowledge regarding fiction titles in the context of choice in general, and the relationship between familiarity and expertise - given the characteristics of (the market) of fiction - in particular. On the basis of the previous considerations made in the sections 1.3 and 1.4, the initial research problems are divided into the following research questions:

a. What is the dimensionality of familiarity with fiction (section 1.3.1);
b. What is the effect of involvement on familiarity with fiction (section 1.4.1);
c. How does familiarity with fiction relate to expertise (section 1.3.1); and
d. What is the effect of motivation and ability on the relationship between familiarity and expertise (section 1.4.2)?"

The reader will notice that differences in familiarity and expertise according to genre category are not the subject of specific research questions. The reason is that Alba and Hutchinson (1987) define (past) reading behaviour regarding literature, romance, and/or mystery/suspense, as part of familiarity. In the result sections, genre reading behaviour is taken as an indicator of familiarity and, therefore, studied integrally with the total concepts of familiarity and expertise as the components of consumer knowledge. However, attention is payed to the position of genre reading behaviour within the familiarity construct and its position relative to expertise.

1.5.2 THE SUBSEQUENT CHAPTERS

In the following chapter, a theoretical framework is unfolded which provides a point of departure for studying the research questions under attention. In the first part of the following chapter, the literature on consumer knowledge is retrieved in order to identify and describe its components in relation to the decision-making environment of fiction. Tentative research propositions are presented from which research hypotheses are derived in the result sections of this thesis. Chapter Three deals with the conceptualisation and the measurement of consumer familiarity and expertise. A reflection is given on possible indicators of the theoretical concepts introduced in the framework in Chapter Two. On the basis of this reflection, a final choice is made concerning the method used for operationalising and examining consumer knowledge regarding fiction in this thesis. In Chapter Four, the dimensionality of and the relationships between the familiarity measures are examined. Additionally, the effect of involvement on familiarity is studied. Hypotheses are formulated on the basis of the propositions in Chapter Two and empirically tested. In Chapter Five, several measures of expertise are examined for their psychometrical properties. Measures are divided into expertise that is of use in deciding which title to choose and expertise on where to obtain this decision- making relevant information. In Chapter Six, the

results of a study are reported in which the relationship between familiarity and expertise was examined, as well as the effect of motivation and ability on this relationship. Finally, in Chapter Seven, the previous chapters are summarised and an evaluation is given of the degree to which the research questions have been answered. Conclusions are drawn with regard to the outcomes, and suggestions for future research, as well as practical implications of the results, are discussed.

CHAPTER 2

CONSUMER KNOWLEDGE IN THE DECISION-MAKING PROCESS OF READERS OF FICTION: A FRAMEWORK

2.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, a theoretical framework is presented to study consumer knowledge in the decision-making process of readers of fiction. For this purpose, the research literature on consumer knowledge was screened. The screening revealed that a distinction can be made between two major research paradigms that make statements about (consumer) knowledge in a decision-making environment: the social-cultural approach and the information processing approach. The focus of the social-cultural approach, on the one hand, is on the relationship between sociodemographic background characteristics and participation in cultural behaviour and little attention is given to the (mental) processes that lie in between. The information-processing approach, on the other hand, is basically concerned with the mental processes that take place in the consumer's mind. In the following sections these paradigms are discussed to gain insight into the concept of consumer knowledge and to derive how consumer knowledge is obtained from, and interacts with, consumer (decision-making) behaviour.

2.2 THE SOCIAL-CULTURAL APPROACH

In the Netherlands, cultural (consumer) behaviour is generally studied from a social-cultural approach. There are two major theories that are usually applied to explain and study cultural (consumption) behaviour. The first was developed by Pierre Bourdieu (1984), a French cultural sociologist. In his theory, the concepts of habitus and cultural capital relate to consumer knowledge. The second theory was introduced by Harry Ganzeboom (1984; 1989) and is known as the information theory of cultural participation. In this theory, the concept of cultural competence closely resembles that of consumer knowledge.

2.2.1 BOURDIEU'S HABITUS AND EMBODIED CULTURAL CAPITAL

In Bourdieu's theory, the habitus is thought to determine and explain cultural behaviour (Bourdieu, 1984). Habitus refers to a system of schemes of action, perception, and appreciation that are internalised (learned) by people from childhood on. Although consumer tastes and choices are experienced as strongly

individual in nature, according to Bourdieu, consumers' preferences are not randomly distributed among available cultural products. Subjectively perceived choices that determine lifestyles are determined within the social context of the habitus. Attributes of the social domain, especially the economic, social, and cultural means people have at their disposal - referred to by Bourdieu as capital - limit the number of (product) alternatives people (can) choose from. Of these forms of capital, embodied or internalised cultural capital[13] is the most influential in determining cultural behaviour (Lamont and Lareau, 1988): it contains cultural knowledge which is related to the object of this study.

Inherent in Bourdieu's definition of embodied cultural capital as part of cultural capital, is the notion that embodied cultural capital constitutes, during the socialisation process, internalised - embodied - cultural attitudes, preferences, and behaviours. Embodied capital requires time-consuming cultivation during the total life of the individual, but should not be restricted to primary and secondary socialisation (Erickson, 1996; De Graaf, 1986). Indices of embodied cultural capital that are therefore often reported in literature, and explicitly mentioned in Lamont and Lareau's (1988) definition of cultural capital, are cultural attitudes, behaviours, formal knowledge, and preferences (Lamont and Lareau, 1988; Erickson, 1996).

Though the concepts of habitus and embodied cultural capital resemble consumer knowledge to a great extent, their indices are not concrete enough to complete familiarity, expertise, involvement, motivation, and ability. What is of concern, however, is that Bourdieu's theory underlines the view that culture, referred to as the beliefs, values, and views we share as members of a society, is an important external source that influences cultural (consumer) behaviour in at least two ways. First, the habitus affects cultural behaviour directly by acting as a source of (consumer) knowledge that will be put forward in the process of choice. Second, the habitus affects consumer choice behaviour by identifying boundaries for what we see as acceptable or appropriate (cultural) products, services, and consumer activities (Bourdieu, 1984; Wilkie, 1990). An important consequence is that, as Bourdieu points out, within an entire society, subcultures

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[13] In fact, Bourdieu (1979; in Lamont and Lareau, 1988) distinguishes three types of cultural capital. First, there is the objectified cultural capital (e.g., transmittable goods - books, computers, particle accelerators, paintings - that require embodied cultural capital to be appropriated). Second, there is the institutionalised cultural capital (e.g., the degrees and diplomas which certify the value of embodied cultural capital items). And third, there is the embodied (or incorporated) cultural capital (e.g., the legitimate cultural attitudes, preferences, and behaviours that are internalised during the socialisation process). The objectified cultural capital and the institutionalised cultural capital do not give direct insight into internalised aspects of behaviour, and therefore are, strictly speaking, not part of (consumer) knowledge.

or subgroups of people can be identified who tend to share particular patterns of values and cultural consumer behaviours. These variables combine to determine lifestyles, which in turn have great influence on (future) choice behaviour (Wilkie, 1990).

2.2.2 GANZEBOOM'S INFORMATION THEORY OF CULTURAL PARTICIPATION

Ganzeboom's 'information theory of cultural participation' (Ganzeboom, 1984; 1989) builds on Bourdieu's assumed causal relationship between attributes of the social domain and cultural participation. By borrowing insights from the information-processing approach, the theory explicitly states that cultural participation is a form of human choice-behaviour that can therefore be studied "...by means of general theories of human choice-behaviour" (Ganzeboom, 1984). More specifically, the theory states that cultural consumption requires the processing of (complex) information. It explores which feelings of appreciation and pleasure are evoked by the activity of processing information. The hypothesis is derived that persons with increased levels of competence prefer complex cultural utterances to less complex cultural utterances.

According to the theory, competence is affected by the natural-born capacity to process and understand complex (cultural) information, as well as the cultural knowledge and skills acquired during one's lifetime. Three sources are available for acquiring cultural knowledge and skills: formal education (school), one's upbringing in the social environment, and (consumption) experience(s) obtained by the person during his or her lifetime. At the operational level, the individual's level of education, the level of education of the parents, engagement in highly valued cultural behaviours in the past, and formal knowledge of culture are often taken as indicators from which competence level is derived.

Ganzeboom's concept of competence resembles consumer expertise as defined in Chapter One. Yet, the applicability differs. In the case of Ganzeboom's theory, knowledge acquired through the sources mentioned above concerns the ability to process, understand and appreciate cultural information in general. In a consumer decision-making environment, however, that knowledge is of importance that facilitates choice and that is instrumental in choosing a product that is expected to lead to a satisfying consumption experience. These two types of knowledge are not the same. Additionally, Ganzeboom's theory does not provide for concrete points of departure regarding the process of learning from behaviour, which is essential to developing (and conceptualising) consumer knowledge. Nor does the theory give us any insight into the way consumers apply consumer knowledge in the decision-making process. These considerations make Ganzeboom's theory less appropriate for finding

(preliminary) answers to the research questions.[14]

In sum, both theories underline the view that cultural knowledge and experience (habitus by Bourdieu, competence by Ganzeboom) affect cultural behaviour and, consequently, the process of choice regarding cultural products. Because both theories were developed to answer research questions different from the ones formulated here, no position with regard to consumer knowledge in a decision environment is taken. Nor do the theories allow the researcher to derive how familiarity with fiction conceptually distinguishes itself from expertise, and how it relates to expertise with fiction. It was thus concluded that the social-cultural approach is not a suitable approach in the context of the present study and, instead, an information-processing approach is taken as the basis for studying consumer knowledge in the decision-making environment of readers of fiction.

2.3 AN INFORMATION-PROCESSING APPROACH

In the information-processing approach, "...the consumer is characterized as interacting with his or her choice environment, seeking and taking in information from various sources, processing this information, and then making a selection from among some alternatives" (Bettman, 1979). In the light of our research problems, the information-processing approach is instrumental. As a result of the complexity of the decision-making environment of fiction, the consumer has to make selections from information which is potentially relevant to making choices. The way in which consumers select information, react to it and interpret it, and how it is combined or integrated with other information may have a crucial impact on familiarity and expertise, and, subsequently, on choice. From this perspective, information processing is a central component of consumer choice behaviour (Bettman, 1979).

Consumer knowledge was not studied in isolation but in the context of decision-making. Therefore, the discussion of the decision-making process of readers of fiction constitutes the first part of this section. The position of consumer knowledge within the consumer decision-making environment is discussed. How consumer knowledge is acquired in the decision-making process and how it is inserted into that same process in order to make choices is elucidated.

Traditionally, no explicit distinction is made in decision-making models between familiarity and expertise as distinct aspects of consumer knowledge. One reason is that an influential stream of research focusses on the impact of consumer knowledge or experience on information-gathering behaviour (see, for example, Brucks, 1985; Bettman and Park, 1980; Johnson and Russo, 1984;

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[14] Interested readers are referred to Miesen and Stokmans (1998) for a supplement to Ganzeboom's theory.

Kirschenbaum, 1992; Hulland and Kleinmuntz, 1993; Fiske et al., 1994; Kline and Wagner, 1994; Hoyer and MacInnis, 1997). To avoid confounding the independent variable consumer knowledge with the dependent variable information-gathering behaviour, researchers use operationalisations of consumer knowledge that often limit themselves to subjective knowledge (Brucks, 1985; Hoyer and MacInnis, 1997) or objective knowledge measures (Bettman and Park, 1980; Johnson and Russo, 1984; Brucks, 1985; Alba and Hutchinson, 1987; Hoyer and MacInnis, 1997). The first type of knowledge refers to consumers' own perception about what they know compared to other consumers (Brucks, 1985; Hoyer and MacInnis, 1997), whereas the latter refers to the actual information that is stored in memory (Brucks, 1985) or the knowledge structure (Alba and Hutchinson, 1987). As a consequence of the focus on explaining and predicting (future) information-gathering behaviour, product-related experiences collected in the past - which are part of familiarity - are not taken into consideration.

The objective of the second part of this section is, therefore, to more thoroughly discuss consumer knowledge in the light of the structure of memory and memory processes with regard to the consumer as an information-processing system. This allows for conceptualising the constructs of familiarity and expertise, to study their mutual relationship, and to identify the effect of motivation and ability on this relationship. In the following section, a discussion is given of consumer knowledge within the decision-making process of readers of fiction.

2.3.1 CONSUMER KNOWLEDGE AND DECISION-MAKING

The complexity of consumer behaviour has led to the construction of models of the decision-making process that indicate the stages through which consumers pass from the time they first becomes aware of (a need for) a product or a service to the time when a product or service is purchased and evaluated. Fundamental to understanding the role of consumer knowledge in this process is the question how consumers become aware of and learn about products or services through different sources such as packages, promotions, advertisements and conversations with other people, and eventually apply this consumer knowledge in the process of choice. At the same time, these models usually indicate the psychological factors that shape the potential buyer's action at each stage of the process which is of special interest here due to the researcher's interest in involvement.

2.3.1.1 The information-processing theory of consumer choice

Within the area of model development from a consumer behaviour perspective, several information-processing models of consumer choice have been developed. One of the most influential models is the information-processing theory of

consumer choice (Bettman, 1979). The theory is based on the viewpoint from cognitive psychology that the human organism (e.g., the consumer) is an information processor that has a limited capacity for processing information. As a result of limited processing capacity, the human organism is limited in the extent to which it can carry out several mental activities at the same time. One implication is that consumers will use heuristics, or simple rules of thumb, that enable them to deal with complex decision-making environments without requiring more processing capacity than is available. This notion is very important for a theory of choice because this limitation will affect the various stages in the decision process.

In the information-processing model of consumer choice (Bettman, 1979), the consumer is regarded as an information-processing system which solves a choice problem by passing through a sequential hierarchical decision-making process consisting of six phases: problem recognition, information acquisition, information evaluation, choice, purchase, and product consumption (Bettman, 1979; Engel et al., 1995). If problem recognition occurs, consumers perceive a discrepancy between an actual state and a desired state of affairs. As a result, they will be motivated to engage in problem solving in order to resolve the discrepancy between the two states. The choice process is then seen as a process of moving from some initial state towards some desired state (Newell and Simon, 1972). The movement from an initial state towards the desired state is guided by the goal hierarchy set by the consumer. The desired end state is called the goal object (Bettman, 1979).

In the information acquisition stage, consumers search for, attend to, and perceive and process information in order to achieve their goals, for example, selecting a fiction title. After the problem has been recognised and the goals have been set, consumers initially retrieve information from memory in order to solve the choice problem. In the case of a simple rebuy, consumers make a decision based on information in memory without any additional search. However, if information in memory is not sufficient, additional information may be sought from external sources. Motivation is an important aspect in this phase of the choice process: depending on the goals of the consumers, they will be motivated to search for and devote attention to that information that is relevant to attaining these goals (Bettman, 1979; Hoyer and MacInnis, 1997). Given that consumer familiarity and expertise are contingent upon concrete consumer behaviours, this phase of the choice process is of special interest in this thesis.

After sufficient information has been acquired, the information is judged by means of evaluative criteria: the consumer determines which product cues are appropriate for solving the choice task at hand and infers information about the qualities of the product. These inferences are combined into an overall evaluation of the product. Finally, choice criteria are used to make the final choice.

After the final choice has been made and the product has been consumed and evaluated, the consumption experience can serve as a source of information to

the consumer in the future. It was argued that the consumer is very likely to make causal inferences about the consumption experience. These inferences can lead to different actions on the consumer's part. A consumer may decide, for example, that an unsatisfactory reading experience (outcome of consumption) was due to the theme of a book though the author's style of writing was liked. In that case, the consumer may decide to choose another novel about a different theme by the same author. In the choice context, the name of the author may then serve as a product cue that triggers the inference 'I like that author's style'. However, if the consumer decides that the style of writing was the cause of the unsatisfactory consumption experience, the consumer may decide not to read a book of that author again and try a book of a different author instead.

Given that product consumption and product information-gathering behaviour are the primary means for obtaining consumer familiarity and expertise (Bettman, 1979; Johnson and Russo, 1984; Sujan, 1985), the information-gathering stage and the consumption stage of the decision-making process are of particular interest. In the following section, it is argued that (future) information-gathering behaviour in the choice environment is guided by and contingent upon consumer knowledge and the mental representation of the choice problem in the consumer's mind.

2.3.1.2 Applying consumer knowledge in a decision-making environment: Problem space (re)constructing

In the case of routinised buying behaviour, the consumer knows which product is needed and the decision is not given much thought. The recognition of the choice problem and its solution lead to one action: buy that product of that brand. However, in the situation in which no routinised buying behaviour occurs, the decision-making process can be regarded as a (complex) choice problem (Newell and Simon, 1972; Payne et al., 1993). Problem solving is used if a specific goal is not easily reached. As mentioned in the previous section, two mental states can be described when faced with a problem: the initial state and the final goal state. In between are the rules that lead from the initial state to the final goal state.

The problem space. Newell and Simon (1972) state that problem solvers move from some initial mental state to a final 'goal' state that contains the problem's solution. The initial mental state is taken as a starting-point for constructing a problem space (Newell and Simon, 1972). The problem space is a mental representation of the choice problem which specifies how the choice problem is perceived and structured. The structure consists of components (product alternatives) and the relations between those components (a similarity structure or a preference structure constructed on the basis of consumer knowledge) (Stokmans, 1991). In a decision-making environment, the initial mental state

consists of a set of alternatives and their descriptions.[15] The final state is the conclusion that one of the alternatives is preferred over all the others.

Information gathering and the problem space. Problem solving takes place in the problem space. The structuring of the choice problem itself is based on consumer knowledge that is already present in the memory of the consumer and on information acquired from the external environment.

In order to construct a problem space, first, product-related information is retrieved from memory. The initial mental state that is constructed on the basis of this information can be very basic in the sense that concepts that constitute the problem space are not well-defined and the relations between the concepts are very global (Stokmans, 1991). The progress toward the final state then requires additional information gathering and inference making to obtain higher level knowledge. Information from external sources as well as inferential information are integrated into the existing mental structure of the consumer: the problem space is redefined, resulting in a new problem space (Newell and Simon, 1972).

The problem space determines the action sequence to solve the choice problem (Newell and Simon, 1972; Stokmans, 1991). Information gathering and evaluation are performed in the light of the problem space (Stokmans, 1991): the choice problem is structured in accordance to the perception of the choice problem, and evaluation and choice-problem structuring are in a loop. This is depicted in Figure 2.1 by the arrow from evaluation to problem space restructuring at time t+1. The products in the problem space, as well as their mutual relations, are defined more precisely, and the choice problem is continuously (re)structured during the decision-making process. This iterative process will be repeated until a preference is formed. Inherent to iterative decision-making is the observation that internal search in memory will decrease and external search will increase as the decision-making process proceeds (Stokmans, 1991). The iterative decision-making process is depicted in Figure 2.1.

Accessibility of information and the problem space. The accessibility-diagnosticity model (Feldman and Lynch, 1988; Herr et al., 1991) proposes that the probability of any product cue being utilised to construct a problem space is, in part, a function of its accessibility. Accessibility refers to the ease or speed with which information or cues come to mind. Highly accessible information, for example, as a result of its vividness in memory, comes to mind more quickly and

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[15] In order to overcome the complexity of the decision-making task regarding fiction, it is very likely that consumers construct a problem space that consists not only of individual titles (alternatives of choice), but also of names of authors. The name of the author helps to structure the number of alternatives and provides for a successful way to simplify the complex decision-problem (Leemans and Stokmans, 1992; Leemans, 1994).

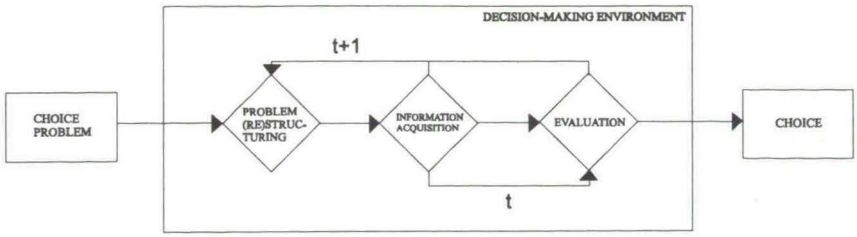

Figure 2.1: The iterative decision-making process

is therefore more likely to be utilised as an information or judgement cue in (re)constructing a problem space than less accessible information (Biehal and Chakravarti, 1983; Herr et al., 1991; Kahneman and Tversky, 1982; Park et al., 1994). What consumer knowledge of fiction is used in order to construct an initial problem space at time *t* is therefore partly a function of the accessibility of the information in memory. These mental sets are thought of as a starting-point for a further internal and external search for information since they are the ones that come to mind most quickly when a problem space is constructed. In this thesis, the focus is on the consumer knowledge (sets) that lay the foundations for the (initial) problem space in a choice environment, independent of a specific choice situation.

Existing prior consumer knowledge - which is at the basis of the initial problem space - may be insufficient for a reader of fiction to permit a choice (Leemans and Stokmans, 1992). The rapidly changing book supply and the huge number of available titles make it very likely that additional information is acquired from external sources such as reviews and relevant others to provide oneself with alternatives (components) and to come to a preference structure. Though the focus is on the consumer knowledge that is available at time *t*, in the next section the effect is discussed of involvement on consumption behaviour and additional information gathering (from the perspective at time *t-1)* since consumption and information-gathering behaviour are the basis for consumer knowledge (at time *t* in the present).

2.3.1.3 An adapted decision-making model of readers of fiction

In the previous sections, the role of consumer knowledge in an information-processing model of consumer choice was discussed. Leemans and Stokmans (1992) proposed an adapted model which is more attuned to the decision-making process of readers of fiction. This model is an extension of the information-processing model of consumer choice. What is essential is that the model explicitly takes into account that regular readers of fiction may engage in (ongoing) information-gathering behaviour without starting the decision-making process with problem recognition and problem space construction. In the adapted

decision-making process model, information is searched for, independent of a specific purchase need and since there is no problem to solve, problem space (re)construction is refrained from. Given that the initial mental state is contingent upon the perception of the choice problem (Stokmans, 1991), regular readers of fiction's information gathering and evaluation may occur outside a problem space. Therefore, the model explicitly contains ongoing searches[16] for, and phased evaluations of, alternatives, viewing decision-making as a serial, rather then a hierarchical process (Stokmans, 1991; Leemans and Stokmans, 1992). In other words, the information acquisition phase and the evaluation phase are in a loop: the consumer searches for information, evaluates the information (in the context of previous evaluations) and then searches again for information without the (urgent) need to choose a particular product in the end.[17] This is depicted in Figure 2.1 by the arrow that goes from information gathering and evaluation at time *t*.

As ongoing searchers, regular buyers of books are more motivated than average to search for and evaluate information (Leemans and Stokmans, 1992). As a result of this ongoing search, a consumer of fiction may have a considerable knowledge of fiction and useful product cues to evaluate it. Knowledge then has been collected by means of ongoing searches and may be used in the construction of a problem space if problem recognition should occur.

2.3.1.4 The effect of involvement on the consumption and the information-gathering stage in the decision-making process

In the literature, many different factors are mentioned that influence consumption, as well as the extent to which consumers engage in (additional) information-gathering behaviour (on an ongoing search basis). In this thesis, motivation is put forward as a dominant explanatory variable for (differences in)

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16 According to Bloch et al. (1986), the motives for engaging in ongoing search are two-fold. The first motive is to acquire a bank of product information that might be potentially useful in the future. This motive may serve several goals, such as facilitating (future) choice. The second motive is engaging in ongoing search for its intrinsic satisfaction or the pleasure derived from the search for information. For regular buyers of books, both aspects are considered to be important. On the one hand, engaging in information-gathering behaviour on a regular basis will allow the consumer to keep up with the rapidly changing supply and prevent consumer knowledge from becoming obsolete. On the other hand, the motivation to engage in ongoing search might be triggered by an involvement with the product category (Bloch et al., 1986), and/or a very positive attitude towards search (Calvin and Olshavsky, 1982; Punj and Staelin, 1983).

17 For a more complete description of the model, see Leemans and Stokmans (1992).

consumer behaviour (see, for example, Bettman, 1979; Brucks, 1985; Bloch et al., 1986; Engel et al., 1995; MacInnis et al., 1991).

Park and Mittal (1985) define motivation as goal-directed arousal: depending on their goals, consumers will be motivated to search for that information that is relevant to attaining those goals (Bettman, 1979; Hoyer and MacInnis, 1997). High motivation implies that the consumer has a high willingness to allocate increased levels of behavioural energy to obtain his/her goals. Bayton (1958) speaks of goal-directed arousal in terms of the drives, urges, wishes, or desires which initiate a sequence of events. Appropriate external stimuli can result in the activation of the consumer, which will result in a state of arousal. If consumers have the disposition to recognise opportunities that may activate those consumers with regard to concrete behaviour, particular actions or a sequence of action may motivate them to engage in particular (consumer) behaviours.

Strictly speaking, motivation is a process variable that depends on situational variables: one is usually motivated in a specific situation to do something (Stokmans, 1998). Process variables are difficult to measure in a natural setting (Stokmans, 1998). Stokmans (1998), therefore, suggests operationalising motivation in terms of the disposition to recognise opportunities to activate the response system, since the probability that a consumer becomes motivated depends on this disposition. In line with other researchers (see, for example, Laurent and Kapferer, 1985; Bloch et al., 1986; MacInnis et al., 1991; Stokmans, 1998), it is assumed in this study that the disposition to recognise opportunities is shaped by involvement with the product or activity. Involvement is regarded as a driving force behind concrete consumer behavioural action: it directly affects the motivation to engage in overt consumption and information-gathering behaviour (Greenwald and Leavitt, 1984; Laurent and Kapferer, 1985; Bloch et al., 1986).

Other researchers (Cacioppo et al., 1986; Hoyer and MacInnis, 1997) suggest that the need for cognition also affects motivation. However, the need for cognition is a dispositional influence that is often mentioned together with involvement as a personality characteristic that affects the motivation to cognitively process information (deeply) (Cacioppo and Petty, 1982; Cacioppo et al., 1986; Hoyer and MacInnis, 1997). It is a personality construct that was developed to address individual differences in motivation for cognitive processing, as conceptualised by Cacioppo and Petty (1992). It refers to individuals' tendencies to engage in and enjoy effortful thought (Cacioppo et al., 1984). Need for cognition, therefore, is a variable that is assumed to directly affect cognitive processes. Consequently, theorising (and operationalisation) of the motivation to engage in consumption and information-gathering behaviour is limited to involvement. A discussion of the need for cognition is returned to when focussing on the effect of motivation on the relationship between familiarity and expertise.

Involvement is one of the most difficult constructs in consumer research. There are numerous (and often conflicting) conceptual definitions and measures of involvement; it is still an important and controversial topic for researchers in

the field of consumer behaviour studies. As Andrews et al. (1990) stated: "a necessary condition for adequately measuring a construct is to first precisely specify the domain of the construct". Unfortunately, in the case of involvement, many researchers have not done so (see Laaksonen, 1994, for a review of the different approaches to involvement).

In this thesis, the cognitively based approach, as discussed by Laaksonen (1994), is used to conceptualise involvement. In the cognitively based approach, involvement is considered part of the knowledge structure or belief system of an individual (see, for example, Peter and Olson, 1987). Knowledge or beliefs about (reading) fiction titles are interconnected with other beliefs (about basic values, goals, and the self-concept) in a belief system of a consumer. From this perspective, involvement can be defined as the perceived personal relevance of stimuli (e.g., (reading) novels) to the individual in terms of his or her basic values, goals, and the self-concept (Engel and Blackwell, 1982; Zaichkowsky, 1985; Peter and Olson, 1987; Stokmans, 1998). The centrality of the object or activity (in the context of this thesis, fiction) in the belief system reflects the personal relevance of that object or activity to the individual (Stokmans, 1998). From this perspective, involvement is defined in this study as the relatedness of beliefs about the object or activity to beliefs about oneself (Stokmans, 1998).

Involvement with (reading) fiction is a characteristic of the individual that is relatively stable across situations and, though individuals may differ in their level of involvement with reading fiction, it is thought that with an increase in involvement, more situations may trigger the motivation to engage in consumption and/or ongoing information gathering (Stokmans, 1998). Situations vary in the extent to which they trigger the motivational inducing potential of involvement (Stokmans, 1998). However, it is assumed that there is - over all individual situations in time - a monotonically increasing relationship between the level of involvement and the frequency as well as the intensity with which the consumer is motived to act (Stokmans, 1998).

There are only a few concrete studies that have focussed on consumption and external information gathering with the aim of grouping consumers based on commonalities in how they search and consume. However, it is well-known that consumers display strong differences in their patterns of consumption and the information sources they consider (see, for example, Bettman, 1979; Furse et al., 1984; Hoyer and MacInnis, 1997). This means that there will be wide variations in familiarity as well, suggesting that familiarity is a multidimensional construct. These considerations lead to the first proposition:

Proposition 1.

Consumer familiarity with fiction is a multidimensional construct.

This proposition is conceptualised in Chapter Three and empirically tested in Chapter Four.

Similarly, if involvement increases the motivation to engage in consumption or information-gathering behaviour, it also will affect the number of product-related experiences that have been accumulated by consumers. If a consumer is highly involved with works of fiction, there are significant more situations that can trigger the motivation to consume fiction titles or to search for information (on an ongoing search basis); the consumer is more often motivated to do so (Stokmans, 1998). Therefore, it is expected that consumers of fiction who are highly involved with fiction are more likely to engage in consumer behaviour on a frequent basis than those with low involvement: the degree of consumer familiarity increases as involvement increases.

The occasional buyer of books is 'temporarily' motivated to put energy into the purchase process. The decision-making process of the occasional buyer or borrower of fiction titles is usually started by problem recognition as a result of a specific purchase need (Stokmans and Hendricks, 1994), for example, buying or borrowing a fiction title in order to read it on holiday. In this case, the consumer searches for information in order to solve a specific choice problem. Unlike ongoing search, the search for information is restricted to a purchase-related search for information in the light of the structure of the (initial) problem space. There is no deep commitment to the product itself, and the motive for engaging in search usually concerns the desire to maximise the outcome of the decision-making process, as in the case of high-purchase risk (note that this risk does not necessarily have to be a financial one). Therefore, under conditions of low involvement, information gathering is not unlikely to occur since it may be the result of a situational choice problem that has to be solved, such as finding a book to read on holiday (Leemans and Stokmans, 1992). However, in this situation, a limited information search may be conducted. If involvement is sufficiently low, and if there is no direct need to solve a choice problem, no consumer behaviour of any kind may occur. Proposition 2 then runs as follows:

Proposition 2.

The degree of familiarity with fiction increases as involvement increases.

Additionally, consumer behaviour of more highly involved consumers of fiction is thought to be characterised by ongoing search. As a consequence of their increased ability to recognise opportunities that fulfil their goals, it is expected that they engage in an increased number of different consumer behaviours: not only the degree of familiarity, but also the structure of consumer familiarity differs depending on the involvement. This leads us to proposition 3.

Proposition 3.

The structure of familiarity differs according to level of involvement.

Proposition 2 and 3 are conceptualised in Chapter Three and hypotheses derived from these proposition are empirically tested in Chapter Four.

So far, it has been discussed how consumer knowledge interacts with consumer (choice) behaviour. However, the information-processing theories of consumer choice are not explicit in defining and describing the nature of consumer knowledge itself. To find out how consumer familiarity and expertise make up consumer knowledge as part of consumer's memory, this issue is discussed in more detail in the following section.

2.3.2 CONSUMER KNOWLEDGE AND MODELS OF MEMORY

Over the years, several models of memory have been presented in which several separate memory stores for different kinds of memory were proposed. The most influential of the models was Atkinson and Shiffrin's (1968). It became known as the 'modal' model (Schwartz and Reisberg, 1991; Matlin, 1994). This model makes an explicit distinction between structural properties of memory and memory processes that a subject can use when executing a certain (choice) task. The distinction between memory structures and the processes that are used to act on information is an essential one (Klatzky, 1980) and very useful for the analysis of familiarity and expertise. The structure of memory is discussed to arrive at a conceptualisation of both constructs. Subsequently, some basic memory processes are discussed to identify the effect of motivation and ability as consumer characteristics on familiarity and expertise. It is important to note that the models to be discussed in the following sections are treated as conceptual thinking models. The conceptual or mechanical validity of these models are not the focus of discussion. Of course, the structure of human memory and memory processes are much more complex than presented here, but this simplified representation is sufficient for our purposes.

2.3.2.1 The 'modal' model: Sensory system, short-term memory, and long-term memory

In regard to the more permanent structural properties of memory, Atkinson and Shiffrin's model makes a distinction between three structural components: a sensory system, short-term memory (STM), and long-term memory (LTM).

When consumers are confronted with a stimulus in the environment, this information first enters a sensory register. In this register, perception and selection of the raw data take place. After primal perception and selection, the information enters the STM. STM contains that information the information processor is actively thinking about: it contains information that is currently and consciously under attention. According to the model, the information finally passes from STM to LTM, implying that STM and LTM are different memories. In LTM, information is stored that can be remembered but that is not currently needed when working on information in STM.

Several variants of this model have been introduced. Raaijmakers (1984) presented the SAM theory (Search of Associative Memory), which is based on

the framework developed by Atkinson and Shiffrin. An important difference between the SAM-theory and Atkinson and Shiffrin's model, is that no sensory registers are present in SAM theory. Memory is regarded as a complex network of elements associated with each other in a complex way. STM refers to those elements that are in an active state. All information that is not in an active state is referred to as LTM. In this view, STM and LTM are regarded as two mental states of one and the same memory (Raaijmakers, 1984). Forgetting in STM is viewed as the transition of information from active state to non-active state. In the SAM theory, sensory registers are part of short-term memory: information which is not under attention, will go rapidly from an active to an non-active state.

More recently, researchers have referred to STM as active memory or working memory (Schwartz and Reisberg, 1991; Baddeley, 1992; Boekaerts and Simon, 1995), emphasising that it is more like a workbench where material is constantly being handled, combined, and transformed. In fact, the position is taken in this thesis that working memory is the place where consumers (re)structure the problem space. The information on which the consumer as an information processor is currently working during problem space (re)structuring is present in active memory. As is the case with a workbench, the amount of information that can be handled in working memory at a certain moment in time is limited.

Although there are minor differences between the various memory models, in general, researchers agree upon the idea of STM[18] and LTM as conceptually distinct parts of human memory. Research has been conducted on the nature of working memory and LTM which yielded mixed results (Schwarz and Reisberg, 1991; Matlin, 1994). However, the structural framework itself has passed the test of time and will be adopted (working memory versus LTM), without committing to a specific memory model.

The correctness of the different models is not a topic in this thesis. Instead, the focus is on the concepts of working memory and LTM as being 'separate' parts of human memory. Working memory allows us to explain how (product) information cues are perceived and handled within the problem space and eventually stored in LTM by the consumer. Therefore, some discussion is reserved for working memory. For discourse purposes, working memory is treated as a system separate from LTM. The reader should, however, keep in mind the idea of working memory as that information that is in an active state and is being worked on by the information processor.

First, a description is given of the structure and content of LTM and how it relates to familiarity and expertise. Subsequently, working memory and the topic of elaborating on information in this memory will be discussed when focussing on depth of processing as a basic memory process.

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[18] From this point on, the term working memory is used to refer to STM.

2.3.2.2 *Consumer knowledge as part of LTM: An associative network of episodic, semantic, and procedural knowledge*

Long-term memory is often subdivided, with different types of information held in different memory stores, such as, verbal versus nonverbal memories. The way in which LTM is organised, determines how new (product) information is perceived and interpreted. It is usually assumed that knowledge in LTM is represented in the form of different domain-specific entities or fields of knowledge.[19] These fields of knowledge are structured in such a way that an integrated entity or associative network is formed (Boekaerts and Simon, 1995). Networks are structures in which concepts are represented as nodes that are linked together according to a defined set of relationships. Learning in an associative network is based on the acquisition of new concepts, relationships, and patterns of relationships (Chi and Ceci, 1987 in Huffman and Houston, 1993). A network may, for example, contain information about fiction titles. Mystery novels are part of fiction titles and the mystery novels network contains subnetworks such as 'science fiction', 'thrillers', 'detectives', etc. Since all knowledge acquired is the result of product-related experiences that differ between persons, and since people use different strategies to organise this knowledge, it is important to keep in mind that there are also many dissimilarities between consumers (of fiction) with regard to the context of certain fields of knowledge.

2.3.2.3 *Consumer familiarity, consumer expertise, and types of information stored in LTM: Episodic, semantic, and procedural knowledge*

It is usually assumed that, for each field of knowledge, information can be stored in three different memory systems:[20] episodic, semantic (declarative or formal knowledge), and procedural (Tulving, 1985; 1986). Episodic memory stores autobiographical information about specific events, defined in time and space. Semantic memory contains the organised knowledge about the world. Procedural memory contains information about how to do things.

Episodic memory. Episodic memory contains a record of events in one's personal life, stored along with information about how and when they occurred.

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19 In the discussion of LTM, the term knowledge refers to all the information stored in memory. Consumer knowledge was defined as a subset of the total information stored in memory that is relevant to a consumer's functioning in the market place.

20 Memory systems are thought of as sets of correlated processes that constitute the major subdivisions of the overall organisation of the memory complex. They differ in their methods of acquisition, representation, and expression of knowledge (see Tulving, 1985).

This knowledge differs from person to person because it is based on personal experiences. Knowledge stored in episodic memory is therefore closely tied to the living environment of the individual. By definition, this information is of (special) interest to the individual. Since it is processed actively, it is most likely to be remembered best (Boekaerts and Simon, 1995). Retrieval of episodic information from memory requires mentally travelling back in time from a certain starting-point. In this sense, knowledge stored in episodic memory is restricted to personal events experienced in the past, and more specifically to the knowledge containing information about the how and when. For example, when asking how many novels someone has read since the beginning of this year, consumers would probably try to remember by mentally tracing back their steps to the beginning of the year. Statements reflecting knowledge stored in episodic memory would include " I have read twelve fiction titles this year"; "Yesterday, I read for three hours"; and "I asked others for advice regarding this novel".

In short, when asked about specific events in the past, one is remembering a specific episode that is tied to a particular time and place and is part of the consumer's personal history. Knowing how and when certain knowledge or experiences are acquired, characterises knowledge stored in episodic memory.

Familiarity, viewed as a unidimensional construct, was earlier defined as '...the number of product-related experiences that have been accumulated by the consumer' (Alba and Hutchinson, 1987). Product-related experiences were described as those experiences that include exposures to advertising, information search, interactions with salespersons, choice and decision-making behaviour, purchasing, and product usage or consumption in various situations. A definition in behavioural terms, however, cannot pertain to aspects of consumer knowledge. Inquiring after product-related experiences that have been accumulated by the consumer would require the individual to retrieve information from episodic memory. Episodic memory is then thought to reflect the extent to which a person is familiar with a product or activity: the more product-related behavioural recollections a consumer makes, the higher his or her familiarity will be. From this perspective, consumer familiarity is an integral part of memory that should not be defined in behavioural terms, as Alba and Hutchinson (1987) did.

Semantic memory. The general knowledge people have about the world, for which no information about when or how it was acquired is available or needed, is stored in semantic memory (Tulving, 1985; 1986; Schwartz and Reisberg, 1991). This knowledge is not linked to a place or the time period in which it was obtained. Semantic memory is a memory for facts rather than a memory for occasions, and retrieval can be direct without the need to mentally travel back in

time, as in episodic memory.[21] For example: "Mulisch is a Dutch author" is semantic knowledge. "I remember reading about him in a magazine recently" is episodic knowledge. In a later section, it is discussed how semantic knowledge relates to consumer expertise. First, a description of procedural memory is given.

Procedural memory. The third type of memory - procedural memory - can operate independently of episodic or semantic memory (Tulving, 1984). Procedural memory can best be described as memory for skills. Clearly, knowing how to do something is something other than remembering events or knowing things. Procedural memory was initially described by Tulving (1984) as memory that "...enables organisms to retain learned connections between stimuli and responses, including those involving complex stimulus patterns and response chains, and to respond adaptively to the environment". Procedural memory involves knowing how to do something or learning connections between stimuli and responses. What is essential here according to Tulving (1984), is that procedural memory provides a blueprint for future action without containing information about the past. It expresses itself through overt responses and is typified by anoetic (nonknowing) consciousness. Some examples of procedural knowledge might include knowing how to ride a bicycle, knowing how to open a door lock or knowing how to read.

Recently, Tulving's view has been extended with the view that procedural

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[21] There is a controversy in the literature about the conceptual difference between the episodic and semantic memory system. Questions that arise are whether semantic and episodic memory are two separate systems, or two different aspects of one and the same memory system (Johnson and Hasher, 1987). Johnson and Hasher (1987) reported that attempts to test the proposition that episodic and semantic memory represent isolable systems have largely not supported the distinction. In reaction to some of these criticisms, Tulving (1984; 1985; 1986) has proposed a modified framework in which episodic memory is a subsystem of semantic memory. Raaijmakers (1984) suggested conceiving the difference between semantic-episodic memory as a difference in two types of information, as Boekaerts and Simon (1995) did. Both types of information then reside in a long-term memory network of nodes (location) interconnected by associations (pathways) (Klatzky, 1980). The question whether memory concerns one or two memory systems is then no longer is of relevance. Each memory system should not be viewed as a physically separate entity but as distinct representations in memory which have certain unique characteristics. Since the physical aspects of memory are not a topic, knowledge stored in episodic and semantic memory is referred to as episodic and semantic knowledge, avoiding the discussion about the 'physical' distinctiveness of episodic and semantic memory. These two types of knowledge are distinct representations in LTM which have their own unique characteristics.

memory holds knowledge about skills and methods for dealing with facts, concepts, and episodes (Doulon and Della Bitta, 1993). This is in line with Anderson's view on procedural knowledge. Anderson (1983) makes a distinction between procedural knowledge and declarative knowledge. Procedural knowledge here refers to procedures or action plans, a detailed procedure to deal with knowledge at the episodic and semantic level (the latter being declarative knowledge). From this perspective, this type of knowledge plays an important role in problem solving. Procedural knowledge could be regarded as knowledge about cognitive processes required to perform product-related (mental) tasks successfully, which is in line with the view proposed by Alba and Hutchinson (1987). For example, when making inferences about the experience that may result from reading a (particular) fiction title, procedural knowledge is required in order to engage in accurate inference-making or successful problem solving when redefining the problem structure. Behaviourally, procedural knowledge would reflect 'script-like' information, an outline of behavioural actions that should be followed in order to act or behave appropriately. For example, a statement reflecting procedural knowledge would be "always read the summary on the backside of the cover in order to get an impression of a book" or "use the alphabetical ordering in the bookstore for finding a title of a specific author". Procedural memory therefore contains knowledge about how to perform certain functions or tasks, both behaviourally and mentally.

Consumer expertise was defined as "the ability to perform product-related tasks successfully" (Alba and Hutchinson, 1987), and, in a broad sense, consumer expertise includes both the cognitive structure and the cognitive processes (e.g., decision rules for acting on the elements that make up the cognitive structure). These two components of expertise correspond with the distinction between semantic and procedural knowledge. Semantic knowledge consists primarily of the facts that people know about a certain domain while procedural knowledge represents (cognitive) procedures that operate on these facts (Anderson, 1983). In the context of decision-making, semantic knowledge concerns the elements of the problem space, whereas procedural knowledge refers to the competence to construct and reconstruct the problem space in the process of choice. In order to conceptualise and operationalise consumer knowledge and to develop testable hypotheses about the relationship between consumer familiarity and expertise, the position is taken that episodic knowledge expresses the degree and structure of familiarity, whereas semantic and procedural knowledge both express the expertise a consumer has.

2.3.3 A DEFINITION OF CONSUMER KNOWLEDGE

Taking the iterative decision-making process and the consumer as an information processing system, consumer knowledge with regard to (choosing) fiction titles

is defined as: *the whole of product-related episodic, semantic, and procedural knowledge that is available at time t (in order to (re)construct a problem space at time t+1)*. Consumer knowledge is acquired by means of product-related consumption and information-gathering behaviour. The position is hold that the expertise component of consumer knowledge is made up by the components of the problem space, on the one hand, and the competence to (re)construct that problem space, on the other. These aspects of expertise are expressed through semantic and procedural knowledge, respectively. Episodic knowledge is indicative of familiarity. The definition will be applied in the subsequent chapters to derive conceptualisations and operationalisations of consumer familiarity and expertise.

2.3.4 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN CONSUMER FAMILIARITY AND EXPERTISE: FORMING AN ASSOCIATIVE NETWORK OF EPISODIC AND SEMANTIC KNOWLEDGE

Although some attention has been paid to procedural knowledge, this dimension of consumer expertise is not of concern in this thesis. The reason is that the focus is on the relationship between familiarity and the expertise that lays the foundations for (the elements of) a problem space. The latter was identified as semantic in nature. From this perspective, in this thesis, the position is taken that the relationship between consumer familiarity and expertise[22] is assumed to exist if the consumer minimally memorises episodic and semantic knowledge and connects these two types of knowledge by means of personal relationships (Boekaerts and Simons, 1995). However, episodic knowledge might be stored in memory separately from semantic knowledge (Boekaerts and Simons, 1993; 1995), in accordance with the notion that someone may be familiar with an activity or a product, yet not have developed expertise. For example, personal experiences such as the valuation of a reading experience may be memorised. However, if the consumer does not memorise the name of the author, no link can and will be made between semantic knowledge with knowledge at the episodic level. In a decision-making environment, one then will not be able to use episodic knowledge to improve decision-making by focussing on novels by that particular author. Even if the author is known (semantic level), not linking episodic information (remembering that a book of an author was read and liked) to semantic information (the name of that author) will decelerate the activation of relevant information in the decision-making environment. Making a personal connection between information at the episodic level and the semantic level will allow the consumer to locate the relevant information stored at the episodic level

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22 From this point on, consumer expertise is treated as a one-dimensional construct consisting of semantic knowledge in the remaining of this thesis. However, the reader should keep in mind that procedural knowledge is an essential part of expertise and that expertise is, in fact, two-dimensional.

by means of key words or product cues, e.g., name of the author.

Depth of processing is a basic memory process that is thought of as necessary to relating familiarity and expertise. It is argued next that motivation and ability affect the relationship between familiarity and expertise by affecting depth of processing and, as a result, the formation of (associations between) episodic and semantic knowledge.

2.3.5 Forming an associative network of consumer familiarity and expertise: Depth of processing

Working memory is limited in its capacity to hold information. When no attention is paid to the information in working memory, it can only be retained for a limited amount of time (approximately 30 seconds) and, if not rehearsed, the information will decay rapidly. Repetition of information is one of the many control processes that can be used in order to retain information in working memory. If information is rehearsed long enough, it eventually might transfer to LTM (Atkinson and Shiffrin, 1968). Therefore, repeating information has two functions (Klatzky, 1980): first, to hold information in working memory and to prevent information from decaying. Craik and Watkins (1973) labelled this cognitive process 'maintenance rehearsal'. With maintenance rehearsal, information is merely kept in working memory, presumably with no thought of what the information item means. The second function suggested by Atkinson and Shiffrin (1968), is to provide an opportunity for adding to or enhancing a representation of the information item in LTM by elaborating on it.

When information is rehearsed in a more elaborate (not routinised) way, deeper processing occurs (Schwartz and Reisberg, 1991). Elaborate processing requires storage of information in LTM, and making associations or connections between episodic and semantic knowledge, for example, recognising that an unknown novel was written by a known author. Consumers make these associations in a very subjective way (Payne et al., 1993). As a result, the content and structure of the information in LTM will differ substantially between consumers.

Depth of processing is often seen as a function of the mental processes that are executed upon the information in working memory (Craik and Tulving, 1975). Deeper levels of processing require more abstract mental activities (Greenwald and Leavitt, 1984). The process that requires only a limited amount of mental energy is the process of 'feature analysis'. Feature analysis limits itself to the encoding of the most striking features of the incoming stimuli, for example, the notion that the incoming information is a book title. Semantic processing requires increased levels of processing capacity. Meaning is attached to the individual words in the title without considering the structure of the title. In the next process, the syntactic information in the title is considered. At the deepest level of processing, consumers explicitly think about what is written

down, for example, by relating information in memory to the title in order to infer what the novel will be about. This level of processing is required for inference-making.

In general, elaborate deeper processing enhances memory (Craik, 1979; MacInnis et al., 1991; Schwartz and Reisberg, 1991). However, deeper processing also requires increased mental activities that have a certain mental cost (Schwartz and Reisberg, 1991). The extent to which consumers are willing to invest mental costs, and the extent to which they are forced to do so, is regarded as a function of motivation and the ability to mentally process information, respectively (MacInnis and Jaworski, 1989; Poiesz, 1989; 1991; MacInnis et al., 1991, Schwartz and Reisberg, 1991). It is argued in the following section that, if either motivation and ability are sufficiently high, successful storage and linkage of episodic knowledge (familiarity) with semantic knowledge (expertise) in LTM is more likely.

2.3.6 THE EFFECT OF MOTIVATION AND ABILITY ON DEPTH OF PROCESSING

Whether or not consumers engage in deeper levels of processing and consequently acquire episodic and semantic knowledge from their behaviour is a function of motivation and the ability[23] to mentally process information (MacInnis and Jaworski, 1989; Poiesz, 1989; MacInnis et al., 1991, Schwartz and Reisberg, 1991). These conditions are thought of as consumer characteristics affecting the relationship between familiarity and expertise through depth of processing. The first condition that has an effect on the level of processing is motivation.

Motivation to process information. Motivation was regarded as an important driving force behind concrete behavioural action. That same motivation is also thought of as determining depth of processing (MacInnis and Jaworski, 1989; MacInnis et al., 1991, Schwartz and Reisberg, 1991; Hoyer and MacInnis, 1997). According to MacInnis et al. (1991); high motivation implies that the consumer has a high willingness to allocate increased levels of mental energy or processing resources to the information being attended to. Allocating increased levels of mental energy or processing capacity correlates with deeper processing of the information and, consequently, with better memory (Bettman, 1979; Greenwald and Leavitt, 1984; MacInnis and Jaworski, 1989; MacInnis et al., 1991).

Since motivation was identified in section 2.3.1.4 as a process variable that depends on situational variables, it is assumed - in line with other researchers (see e.g., Petty and Caccioppo, 1981; Stokmans, 1998) - that the extent to which the individual is motivated to mentally process information obtained from

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[23] Opportunity is a third factor that is assumed to affect depth of processing (MacInnis et al., 1991). In Chapter One, it was explained why, in the context of this thesis, opportunity is left out of consideration.

consumption or information-gathering behaviour, depends on both the involvement with the product or activity and the need for cognition.

Involvement was earlier defined as the relatedness of beliefs about the object or activity to beliefs about oneself (Stokmans, 1998). Consequently, though individuals may differ in their level of involvement with reading fiction, it is expected that, under the condition of high involvement, more situations may trigger the motivation to engage in deeper processing (Greenwald and Leavitt, 1984; Stokmans, 1998).

Need for cognition is a dispositional influence that is often mentioned together with involvement as a personality characteristic affecting the motivation to process information more deeply (Cacioppo and Petty, 1982; Cacioppo et al., 1986). It is a personality construct that was developed to address individual differences in motivation for cognitive processing; as conceptualised by Cacioppo and Petty (1982), it refers to individuals' tendencies to engage in and enjoy effortful thought (Cacioppo et al., 1984). Need for cognition emphasises characteristics of the process (namely, the individual's enjoyment and tendency to engage in effortful cognitive activities), rather than the outcome of such cognitive activities (for example, an individual's need for an unambiguous, understandable, well-organised world). It reflects a cognitive motivational drive, rather than an intellectual ability (Cacioppo et al., 1996). Individuals with a high need for cognition organise, elaborate on, and evaluate information that is acquired (Cacioppo and Petty, 1982) and therefore engage in deeper processing.

It is hypothesised that involvement and need for cognition are dispositional influences that directly affect the motivation to process information. It is expected that storage and linking of information at the episodic and semantic level is more likely if consumers are highly motivated. It is, therefore, proposed that motivation moderates the relationship between familiarity and expertise in that it becomes stronger as motivation increases, and less strong under the condition of low motivation in terms of involvement and need for cognition.

In the foregoing, motivation is regarded as a variable that moderates the relationship between familiarity and expertise. A moderator is a variable that affects the relation between an independent (predictor) variable and a dependent (criterion) variable (Arnold, 1982; Baron and Kenny, 1986). Moderator variables are typically introduced when there is an expected weak or inconsistent relation between a predictor (familiarity) and a criterion variable (expertise). Moderation implies that the relation between two variables changes as a function of a third variable. Accordingly, if the relationship between familiarity and expertise differs according to level of motivation, then motivation moderates the relationship between familiarity and expertise. A discussion of moderator variables is postponed till Chapter Six when testing the hypotheses about the relationship between familiarity and expertise. These considerations have so far resulted in the following research proposition:

Proposition 4.

Motivation moderates the relationship between familiarity and expertise. This relationship becomes stronger as motivation increases.

This proposition on motivation is operationalised and tested on its merits in Chapter Six.

Ability to process information. Another factor that affects depth of processing, is the ability or the 'competence' to process information mentally (Petty and Cacioppo, 1981; MacInnis and Jaworski, 1989; MacInnis et al., 1991). A lack of ability implies that the relevant knowledge structures in LTM needed to understand information, memorise it, and to conduct (complex) mental operations on it are missing or not available (Alba and Hutchinson, 1987; Sujan, 1985). Thus, consumers who lack the relevant knowledge structures will not be able to process information (deeply).

Available knowledge structures are an important influence in the formation of familiarity and expertise. Changes in the cognitive structure are most likely to affect consumer behaviour by changing the way in which (future) decision-making is framed. These changes determine the size and composition of the set of alternatives consumers consider in the problem space and which attributes are considered in evaluating those alternatives (Alba and Hutchinson, 1987). However, the problem is faced with that the ability to process information in terms of knowledge structure is the object of study in this thesis. If the researcher wants to examine the effect of ability on the relationship between familiarity and expertise, knowledge structure cannot be taken as an indicator of ability since it would confound the definition of expertise. To avoid this, it was decided that level of education is taken as an indicator of ability. Consumers will benefit from memorising product information cues such as name of the author and title of the novel. It is assumed that consumers who are highly educated, are better trained in memorising, elaborating on, and remembering information as a result of their educational training. It is proposed that ability moderates the relationship between consumer familiarity and expertise by facilitating information processing during consumer behaviour, and, consequently, results in increased levels of familiarity and expertise.

Proposition 5.

Ability moderates the relationship between familiarity and expertise. This relationship becomes stronger as ability increases.

This final proposition is also operationalised and tested on its merits in Chapter Six.

CHAPTER 3

CONCEPTUALISATION AND MEASUREMENT OF CONSUMER FAMILIARITY AND EXPERTISE

3.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter, a framework was presented of the consumer as a decision-maker and information processor. The next topic is the research methodology and the measurement procedures used to study consumer knowledge about fiction.

The following choices will be addressed: which method of information gathering will be used and which indicators will be used for inquiring after consumer familiarity and expertise?

3.2 GENERAL RESEARCH METHOD

Since the main focus is on the relationship between familiarity and expertise, an experiment is a feasible methodology. An experiment is a study in which the effect of one variable on another is measured by manipulating the first variable and observing the second (Malhotra, 1993; Stern and Kalof, 1996). However, an experiment would require manipulating consumer familiarity, as well as involvement, motivation, and ability at time *t*, and studying the effect of this manipulation on consumer expertise at *t+1*. However, the former four variables cannot be manipulated by the researcher since they are all rather stable consumer characteristics that are either present at time *t* (for example, the moment at which the experiment is conducted) or not. Since the interest lies in the (inter)relationships between (indices of) consumer familiarity and expertise at time *t* under different conditions of involvement, motivation, and ability, a correlational study was decided on for which the data would be collected by means of interview survey studies.

In a correlation study, people, groups, or events are sampled from a population of interest (Stern and Kalof, 1996). More than one variable is measured and the relations between the variables are examined. In general, hypotheses are tested about the relationships between variables (familiarity and expertise). No variables are manipulated; they are measured but not created or modified by the researchers.

The definition of consumer knowledge as presented in Chapter Two allows for correlational studies for which data is collected by means of interview survey research since consumer knowledge was defined as knowledge at time *t*. How

this knowledge is used to come to a preference or consumer knowledge at time $t+n$ is not a research topic in this thesis.

3.3 MEASURING CONSUMER KNOWLEDGE: INDICATORS VERSUS OPERATIONALISATIONS

The theoretical concepts introduced in the previous chapter will now be filled in. In order to do this, the distinction between indicators and operationalisations will be used (Segers, 1977). Although indicators and choice of instrument are closely related, the distinction between the two will help to judge the validity of considerations for a certain measurement procedure. The validity of a measurement procedure initially concerns indicators and subsequently the operationalisations (Segers, 1977). If selected indicators are not representative of the theoretical concepts in question, the validity of the total measurement procedure can be questioned. Since theoretical concepts are often abstract in nature, the indicators are only valid if they represent all aspects identified in the definition of the concept. No indicators may lie outside the field of the theoretical concept.

Once valid indicators have been chosen, representative operationalisations must be selected. An operationalisation is valid if there are no systematic measurement errors and if the instrument is reliable (Segers, 1977). It is correct if there are no systematic deviations in the measurement procedure and if the procedure is reliable.

In the following, several indicators and operationalisations of consumer familiarity and expertise are discussed. First, a short review will be given of the indicators and the operationalisations of consumer knowledge as used in the literature.

3.3.1 THEORETICAL CONCEPTS AND INDICATORS OF CONSUMER KNOWLEDGE USED IN THE LITERATURE

Thus far, little agreement exists among researchers on how to measure consumer knowledge. This is problematic since the estimated relationships between consumer knowledge and future behaviour are also a function of how that knowledge is operationalised (Alba and Marmorstein, 1986; Fiske et al, 1994). Moreover, in many studies different measures of consumer knowledge have produced contradicting results with regard to the relationship between consumer knowledge and information-gathering behaviour, thereby suggesting that the different methods are not measuring the same underlying construct (Jacoby et al., 1986; Kanwar et al., 1990).

According to Brucks (1985), the measures of consumer knowledge used in the past fall into three categories. The first type measures subjective knowledge, individuals' perception of what they think they know (Brucks, 1985; Cole et al.,

1986; Rao and Monroe, 1988). The second type assesses the amount and type of semantic knowledge that an individual actually has stored in memory (Brucks, 1985; Sujan, 1985; Rao and Monroe, 1988). The third measure comprises a self-estimation of how familiar consumers are with a product (category) and/or how much consumers think they know about a product (category) (Park and Lessing, 1981; Johnson and Russo, 1984; Brucks, 1985). Brucks (1985) notes that the latter category is less directly linked to behaviour, since the information processing view states that experience affects behaviour only if experience results in differences in memory. If people learn different things from similar experiences, their behaviours are likely to be different (Brucks, 1985). Brucks, however, did not use this insight to expand the consumer knowledge concept: she divided consumer knowledge into two categories, objective and subjective measures.

As discussed, Alba and Hutchinson (1987) expanded the concept of consumer knowledge by distinguishing between a familiarity and an expertise component. Nowadays, the taxonomy suggested by Alba and Hutchinson (1987) has become very popular though the terms experience and consumer knowledge are still used interchangeably in literature. Rao and Monroe (1988), for example, measured consumer knowledge by using a composite multi-item scale comprising thirteen objective knowledge-based questions (expertise) that assessed subjects' knowledge of brand names, store names, technical terms, and appropriate usage situations (expertise; procedural knowledge). A self-assessed measure of familiarity was also used. Rao and Sieben (1992) used a seventeen-item scale in which objective and subjective indicators of consumer knowledge were included. The scale included questions assessing subjects' knowledge of attributes, attribute-performance relationships, brand and store information (expertise), purchase and use experience (familiarity), and one item that measured self-perceptions of familiarity. Perkens and Rao (1990) measured experience by asking for the number of months which managers had worked in brand management (familiarity). Self-reported ability and frequency of behaviour in question were additional measures. Johnson and Russo (1984) measured familiarity through respondents' self-reports of experience with the product category.

Subjective knowledge measures (a self-estimation of how familiar a consumer is with a product (category) and/or how much the consumer thinks s/he knows about a product(category)) are interchangeably used as indicators of familiarity as well as self-assessed familiarity. In our view, however, self-assessed frequency of product-related behaviour is indicative of familiarity. Moreover, the terms consumer knowledge and consumer familiarity are used interchangeably though, at the operational level, semantic knowledge, which is part of consumer expertise, is often measured. There appears to be little consensus about what exactly consumer knowledge involves. This makes it hard to determine what researchers are, in fact, trying to measure and predict. Therefore, there is a need

of a more uniform approach to (labelling) and studying consumer knowledge. The (operational) definition of consumer knowledge as presented in section 2.3.3 of Chapter Two may be helpful.

Taking both the taxonomy suggested by Alba and Hutchinson and the definition of consumer knowledge used in this study as a starting point, the taxonomy developed by Brucks (1985) is expanded to include behavioural response measures as indicators of consumer familiarity: frequency and type of consumer behaviour are indicative of the degree and content of familiarity with a certain activity or product category, since answering questions about (past) behaviour would require respondents to retrieve episodic knowledge from memory.

Familiarity does not indicate what people in fact may have learned from their encounters with the product category. Thus, the measure is indicative but, as Brucks (1985) has already noted, not totally valid as the single indicator of consumer knowledge. If the focus is on knowing what people have actually learned from their encounters with the product, an objective knowledge measurement assessing expertise should supplement the familiarity measures.

Assuming that episodic knowledge reflects consumer familiarity, the question arises which parts should be measured. Similarly, which aspects of (semantic) knowledge should be questioned to measure expertise? In the following section, some indices of familiarity are discussed. Subsequently, attention will be given to indices of expertise.

3.3.2 CONSUMER FAMILIARITY INDICES

Two aspects of consumer behaviour are distinguished: degree and content (Bettman, 1979). The degree of familiarity is assessed by how often consumers have engaged in particular behaviours. Additionally, there is a focus on the particular consumption behaviours consumers have conducted in the past, referring to the content of familiarity.

3.3.2.1 Degree of consumer familiarity

Obviously, as a result of psychological test characteristics, the degree of familiarity is measured by the scoring of the consumer on the survey items. There are established rules for obtaining quantitative (numeric) information from the sample of consumers about the frequency of occurrence of consumer behaviour conducted in the past. As such, the degree of familiarity with a specific behaviour is established by the scores on frequency of occurrence scales: the more a behaviour is engaged in as reported by the consumer, the more familiar respondents will be with that aspect of consumer behaviour.

Though familiarity is often treated as a unidimensional construct, it is taken to

consist of a variety of behaviours co-occurring in different ways and in consequence relating differently to expertise. A multi-dimensional account of familiarity is proposed in which a distinction is made between episodic knowledge based on consumption-related consumer behaviour and knowledge based on information-gathering-related consumer behaviour. Product-related episodic knowledge (familiarity) will be discussed along these two dimensions.

3.3.2.2 Content of familiarity: Consumption-related familiarity

To measure familiarity more accurately, an effort will be made to cover a wide range of behaviours at the basis of familiarity. First, some aspects of consumption-related familiarity are identified.

Four types of behaviour are focussed on that predict consumption-related familiarity, namely book reading, genre preferences, orientation towards newly-published novels, and variety seeking.

Book reading. Frequency of consumption is a spin-off of a classical operationalisation of the degree to which one is familiar with the consumption of a particular product. Frequency can be measured through the amount of time that has been spent on reading in the past or the total number of fiction titles that have been read in the past. Kraaykamp (1993), for example, used indicators such as the age at which the respondent started reading books for fun, the age at which people became library members, the number of books a person read at the age of twelve, and the number of years in which an individual was member of the library between the ages of six and eighteen years (Kraaykamp, 1993). These indicators require retrieval of episodic knowledge, and thus are indicative of the amount of familiarity a respondent has with reading fiction.

However, the time span over which people must recall this information from memory is very long. Since individuals show gradual loss of memory over a period of years (Klatzky, 1980), the likelihood increases that people will judge their (familiarity with) reading behaviour on the basis of more recent experiences. One theory states that people make an estimation of the stability of their behaviour in the past over time based on more recent experiences to estimate frequency of occurrence of behaviour in the past (Ross and Conway, 1986). Though this procedure may result in over- or underratings of the actual familiarity on the respondents' part, it is preferable to use indicators that do not require going back in time too far. The focus here is, therefore, on more recent reading behaviour. It is further assumed that recently acquired knowledge is most influential in the decision-making process as a result of its vivid or top-of-the-mind nature (Fieldman and Lynch, 1988; Herr et. al., 1991). The reading intensity scale as administered by Stokmans (1996) was used. This scale inquires into the frequency with which fiction is read in the previous twelve months, allowing an exploration of how familiarity with the activity of reading as such relates to expertise.

Genre preferences. In addition to inquiring into reading behaviour, genre preferences were also probed. As for genre preferences, the distinction between literature, romance novels, and mystery/suspense (TBO, 1995; Gids Informatiesector, 1998) was used. In exploring differences in consumer knowledge according to genre category preferences, it is important to use a genre division that respondents with different levels and content of knowledge will understand. Literature, romance novels, and mystery novels meet this requirement.

Orientation towards newly-published books. A third type of consumption-related behaviour concerns the orientation towards newly-published books. In order to reduce information complexity and to stay informed about the latest supply, readers of fiction may inform themselves by means of many different sources, such as book reviews, TV programs on books, book sections in newspapers, and the catalogues issued by bookstores. These sources of information are characterised by a high degree of topicality and are, therefore, suitable for readers of fiction who wish to stay informed about the latest releases. These sources create awareness of new cultural products, allowing readers to exhibit 'innovative' behaviour.

Fiction titles can be typified as a dynamically continuous innovation (Engel et al., 1995; Schiffman and Kanuk, 1994), involving the creation of a new product (strictly speaking, every new title is, in fact, a new product) or the alteration of an existing one for which established patterns of consumer buying and product consumption generally are not altered when a new product is released. Flynn and Goldsmith (1993) made a conceptual distinction between global innovativeness and domain-specific innovativeness. Global innovativeness pertains to a personality dimension that is stable and only changes over long periods of time. Domain-specific innovativeness refers to innovative attitudes and behaviours within a certain product category or a domain of activity, in this thesis fiction titles. Flynn and Goldsmith (1993) pointed out that previous measurement problems with traditional measurements of innovativeness were solved by Hurt et al. (1977) by measuring innovativeness conceptualised as a willingness to try new things. Following Hurt (1977), domain-specific innovativeness is defined here as a general and continuous interest in (reading) newly-published books. To avoid confusion with the more traditional completion of innovativeness in terms of discontinuous innovations,[24] it is labelled as 'orientation towards newly-published novels'. This orientation is taken to be an aspect of familiarity that relates to expertise: an orientation towards newly-published books implies awareness of the latest releases and an increased and more elaborate consumer expertise because one is expected to keep oneself informed on a regular basis.

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[24] Discontinuous innovations are referred to as the introduction of entirely new products that do cause buyers to alter their consumer behaviour patterns significantly (Engel et al., 1995).

Communication about fiction always includes the name of the author, the title of the book, and (sometimes) the publishing house. To facilitate decision-making and to improve choice, readers may memorise this information or write it down so that it can function as a product cue in a choice situation. The relationship between this type of familiarity and expertise was expected to be close.

Variety seeking. A fourth type of behaviour that relates closely to innovativeness, is variety-seeking behaviour (Steenkamp and Baumgartner, 1992; Baumgartner and Steenkamp, 1996). Kahn et al. (1986) describe variety seeking as "...the deliberate tendency to switch away from the brand purchased on the last one or more occasions". A more elaborate definition is given by Van Trijp et al. (1996). They define variety-seeking behaviour as "... the biased behavioral response by some decision-making unit to a specific item relative to previous responses within the same behavioral category, due to the utility inherent in variation per se, independent of the instrumental or functional value of the alternatives or items". Like in the case of innovativeness, variety seeking has the potential "...to lead to exciting and novel purchase experiences, to offer a change of pace and relief from boredom, and to satisfy one's desire for knowledge and the urge of curiosity" (Baumgartner and Steenkamp, 1996). It is a means of obtaining stimulation by alternating between familiar choice objects (e.g., brands, stores) simply for a change of pace (Steenkamp and Baumgartner, 1992). Variety seeking leads to exploratory behaviour which is adopted primarily for the pleasure inherent in changing stimulus fields, and not for any extrinsic reason (Berlyne, 1963; Baumgartner and Steenkamp, 1996).

Variety seeking, too, is a means of regulating exposure to sensory and cognitive stimulation. It is also product category-specific, for consumers may seek variety in one product category but not in another. Switching between brands when the brand that is usually bought is not available does not reflect variety-seeking behaviour (van Trijp et al., 1996). Similarly, reading novels by a different author, because all the novels of another author have been read, does not reflect variety-seeking behaviour either. Variety-seeking behaviour expresses itself through a variate consumption and information-gathering pattern and familiarity and expertise are probably more elaborate and broader then when little variety seeking takes place.

3.3.2.3 Content of familiarity: Information-gathering related familiarity

Sources of information-gathering related familiarity can be classified along two dimensions, personalness or intimacy (personal versus impersonal) and marketeer controllability (marketeer versus non-marketeer controlled or dominated) (e.g., Engel et al, 1995, Loudon and Della Bitta, 1993). This classification in terms of their source and type is depicted in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1: A classification of sources of information according to their source and type

	Personal communication	Impersonal communication
Marketeer-dominated	Salespeople	Advertising In-store information
Non-marketeer-dominated	Social others	General purpose media

Source: Engel et al. (1995)

The distinction between marketeer and non-marketeer-dominated personal communication pertains to salespeople and social others (Engel et al., 1995).

Marketeer-dominated personal communication. Salespeople are typically sources of marketeer-dominated personal communication. However, in bookstores and libraries, personal selling plays a very small role. Salespeople act more as sources of information on where to locate a specific fiction title, than representatives pushing a specific book. Consumers may rely on the book advice of salespeople in the bookstore, but this is more likely if the consumer explicitly asks for it. Since it is assumed here that salespeople exert little commercial influence on customers, the communication process in bookstores and public libraries resembles the one in which social others are consulted. Therefore, marketeer-dominated personal communication will not be taken into account beyond this point. Instead, the focus will be on non-marketeer-dominated personal communication.

Non-marketeer-dominated personal communication. Readers of fiction are likely to engage in product-related conversations. Interpersonal communication, involving face-to-face interaction between readers of books, affects the choice process readers of books go through (Leemans, 1994). The personal influence that stems from interpersonal communication has traditionally been conceptualised in consumer research as opinion leadership.

King and Summers (1970) distinguish between personal influence and interpersonal communication in which the dominating attitudes or behaviour of an opinion leader dominate interpersonal communication. Personal influence refers to an effect, while interpersonal communication refers to an exchange of information between individuals (King and Summers, 1970). Personal influence represents the effect of interpersonal communication on future behaviour.

Contrary to this traditional view of opinion leadership, most product-related conversations do not take place in a 'lecture' format, with one person doing all the talking. Many conversations are prompted by circumstance and involve casual interaction rather than formal instruction. It is currently accepted that opinion leaders may also view themselves as opinion seekers and vice versa. There is also evidence that the person who provides information is likely to become a seeker when other product categories are discussed. This shows the

domain-specific nature of opinion leadership and opinion seeking behaviour. Although a conceptual distinction between the two is accepted, an explicit distinction has rarely been made in empirical studies.

The conceptually distinct relationship between opinion leadership and opinion seeking is conceived of in the following fashion. Opinion leaders actively seek information and advice about products as they are generally more involved with a product category (Shiffman and Kanuk, 1994; Engel et al., 1995). Sheer opinion seekers are not likely to act as opinion leaders when their information-gathering behaviour is steered by a limited amount of (consumer) knowledge about a certain product category. Beatty and Smith (1987) reported results that revealed a negative impact of prior consumer knowledge on the amount of interpersonal search. Sheer opinion seeking behaviour seems to stem from a lack of consumer knowledge. Therefore, one can actively seek information from relevant others in order to reduce perceived risk and search time without being able to act as an opinion leader.

A more comprehensive model of the interpersonal flow of communication has been suggested (in Schiffman and Kanuk, 1994) that takes into account that information exchange and its influence are often two-way processes in which opinion leaders both influence and are influenced by fellow opinion leaders and seekers. This model is known as the Multistep-Flow-Of-Communication model. An explicit conceptual distinction is made between those consumers who transmit and/or seek information and advice, and consumers who neither transmit nor seek information and advice. Since communication about fiction may take place without the provision or pursuit of advice, a conceptual distinction is made in this study between opinion leadership, opinion seeking, and interpersonal communication. The latter variable measures familiarity with interpersonal communication, without specifying the direction of communication.

Marketeer-dominated impersonal communication. Commercial or (marketeer-dominated) impersonal communication involves the use of advertising and in-store communication (see Table 3.1).

From the perspective of promoting cultural products in a market that is crowded, advertising is an important instrument for bookstores and publishing houses. Major channels through which consumers can be reached are newspaper advertisements, book reviews, and television programs about books.

In-store communication is a type of sales promotion that is also very popular in the book trade. Many buying or borrowing decisions are made on the spot (Leemans, 1994) and in-store communication can be very influential in steering choice behaviour. Additionally, consumers' attention may have been drawn to information obtained from advertisements or communication with friends prior to entering the store. In-store communication may act as a retrieval cue, helping the consumer to remember this information. Consequently, in-store information can have a strong influence on decision-making and, without doubt, frequent

visits to the library or the bookstore will increase familiarity with this in-store information. To capture ongoing search (Bloch et al., 1986), library visiting and visiting the retail outlet are extended with retail browsing.

General purpose media were not, however, taken into account. Their purpose is usually to stimulate involvement with books in general without making explicit statements about individual titles. Exposure to this type of media does not add to expertise and is not of interest here. The decision to limit information-gathering related familiarity indicators in this study to interpersonal communication, mass-media, and visiting retail outlets is supported by consumer research on external search activity (see, for example, Beatty and Smith (1987)). The product-related experiences mentioned by Alba and Hutchinson (1987) can be successfully classified into these categories of external information sources.

This study does not focus on information gathering with regard to a specific choice or decision. Aspects of this behaviour are merely used to assess familiarity with fiction up to the moment of the survey. Reporting information-gathering behaviour requires the retrieval of episodic knowledge, and is indicative of familiarity. The scope here is limited to those measures that are directly linked to behaviour which resulted in differences in consumer familiarity. Table 3.2 summarises the theoretical concepts and their indicators.

Table 3.2: Consumer familiarity indices applied in this thesis

Theoretical concept	Indicators
Consumption-related behaviour	Reading intensity Genre preferences Orientation towards newly-published books Variety seeking
Non-marketeer-dominated interpersonal communication	Opinion leadership Opinion seeking Interpersonal communication
Marketeer-dominated impersonal communication	Mass-media usage Retail browsing Channel-of-distribution visiting

In summary

Since consumer familiarity is expressed by episodic knowledge pertaining to past product-related experiences, the dimensionality of information sources is useful in establishing which behaviour should be studied to assess familiarity. Consumption-related familiarity will be measured by means of reading fiction, genre preferences, orientation towards newly-published books, and variety seeking. Information-gathering related familiarity involves non-marketeer-

dominated interpersonal communication (opinion leadership, opinion seeking, and interpersonal communication) and marketeer-dominated communication (mass-media usage and retail visiting). Reported frequency of occurrence of consumption and information-gathering behaviour is assumed to express the degree of familiarity with fiction whereas the types of behaviour provide content to familiarity.

3.3.3 CONSUMER EXPERTISE INDICES

The most frequently used indicator of expertise is the amount of semantic knowledge (see, for example, Brucks, 1985; Sujan, 1985; Rao and Monroe, 1988). In the literature, knowledge of books is often measured as objective knowledge (for example the title and author recognition test (Allen et al., 1992; Cunningham and Stanovich 1990; 1991; Stanovich and West, 1989)). In sociological research, cultural competence[25] is operationalised by Kraaykamp (1993), among others, as the amount of knowledge of cultural events and facts. To measure competence, Kraaykamp posed eight general questions about literature and authors. Cultural competence encompasses expertise in terms of objective as well as procedural knowledge, and therefore there were two problems with these indicators. First, the indicators related to semantic knowledge while the author was attempting to measure procedural knowledge (the ability to comprehend complex textual utterances and finding the deeper meanings) according to our definition of consumer knowledge. Second, the operationalisations all focussed on the competence to comprehend complex literary works. It is argued here that specific knowledge about literature is not a necessary condition for choosing, reading and enjoying fiction in general. As no attempt is made in this thesis to relate consumer knowledge to levels of textual complexity, Kraaykamp's indicators are not relevant to the type of consumer knowledge that is of interest here.

It is not surprising, though, that semantic knowledge tests are popular as indicators for expertise. In consumer research, the product categories which usually are selected, have clear attributes. Presenting respondents with a knowledge test is an obvious way of measuring one's amount of expertise. However, the development of a knowledge test for determining expertise in fiction is problematic. It was stated that there are huge individual differences in the size and content of knowledge structures as a result of experiential differences. Due to the vast and rapidly changing supply of books, as well as to the substantial individual differences in preference, consumers' reading histories will differ accordingly. The researcher has to select items that are a valid reflection of the varying expertise consumers have obtained that is useful in constructing a problem space. This is an impossible task. There are many

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[25] In this research, cultural competence usually refers to the ability to comprehend complex literary texts and to find deeper meanings.

different categories (genres) within the same product 'fiction', as well as many individual titles within each category. Moreover, even within a specific genre, enormous differences exist between preferences (for titles), so individual reading histories will differ substantially. It would not be logical to assume that people who are not capable of 'passing' the knowledge test, have no expertise with regard to (selecting) fiction titles. Therefore, it must be concluded that no knowledge test can be developed that would be an accurate instrument for determining consumer expertise on books. In this thesis, an unaided recall task will be used to tap expertise. An additional argument for this choice is that an unaided recall task is the most taxing and strict procedure respondents can use to retrieve information from memory. Moreover, recall tasks are generally used in research regarding semantic product knowledge (see, for example, Zinkhan et al., 1986; Singh et al., 1988). The concrete operationalisations of consumer expertise are discussed in Chapter Five.

CHAPTER 4

CONSUMER FAMILIARITY

4.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, Propositions 1 through 3 are examined which state that familiarity is a multidimensional construct and that its degree and structure differ according to involvement. Familiarity with fiction is operationalised by inquiring after behaviour towards fiction from the past. The focus in this chapter is on the construction of scales, the dimensionality of the familiarity component, and the relationships between the familiarity measures under conditions of low versus high involvement.

In short, the following research objectives were defined in this study:

1. To examine and assess the reliability of operationalisations of familiarity;
2. To determine the dimensionality of familiarity; and
3. To examine the effect of involvement on familiarity.

4.2 METHODOLOGY

4.2.1 RESPONDENTS

Data were collected from inhabitants of Tilburg, a medium-sized city in the south of the Netherlands with about 165,000 inhabitants, using a mail survey in December '95 and January '96. A random sample was taken from the telephone book. First, a primer was sent in which people were informed about the purpose of the study. Addressees were asked to state whether or not they met the requirements for inclusion in the study which were that they had read at least one fiction title in the previous twelve months, and were at least 18 years of age or older. If these requirements were met, respondents were asked if they were willing to receive and fill out a questionnaire about reading and choice behaviour regarding books. Of the 600 primers randomly sent out, 49 (8%) were undelivered due to a nonexisting address. In total, 206 individuals (37% of 551) responded to the primer: 90 respondents (44% of 206) met the requirements for inclusion in the study and were willing to participate. Next, questionnaires on university letterheads were mailed from December 1995 through January 1996 and a total of 82 (91% of 90) were returned with usable responses before the two-month deadline. Eventually, 33 male (40%) and 49 (60%) female respondents participated. The average age was 43 years (s.d.=15.44). Most

respondents had a job (57%) and were well-educated: 45% had higher vocational training or university education.

The representativeness of the sample can be compared to TBO data on book reading by a panel of consumers. The TBO sample is representative of the Dutch population (Tijdsbestedingsonderzoek, 1995). The frequency distributions of gender, level of education, age, occupation, library membership, book club membership, and reading preferences are reported in Table 4.1. The 'TBO select' column contains the frequency distribution of a subsample in which the selection criterion was 'having read at least one fiction title in the previous twelve months'. Since this was the selection criterion used in the current study, the background characteristics of our sample were compared with those of the 'TBO select' sample.

Table 4.1: Sample characteristics of the pilot study compared to TBO data

Characteristics of respondents	This study (N=82)	TBO select (N=2134)	Chi-Square (D.F.) Sign.
Gender:			
male	40%	37%	χ=.12 (1); N.S.
female	60%	63%	
Education:			
primary education (LO)	1%	5%	χ^2=34.32 (6); p<.01
junior vocational training (LBO)	11%	14%	
junior general secondary education (MAVO)	20%	15%	
senior vocational training (MBO)	10%	23%	
senior general secondary /pre-university education (HAVO/VWO)	14%	12%	
vocational colleges (HBO)	23%	23%	
university (WO)	21%	8%	
Age:			
18 - 24	12%	11%	χ^2=4.40 (3); N.S.
25 -39	33%	43%	
40 - 59	38%	33%	
59+	17%	13%	
Occupation:			
(part-time)full-time job	57%	61%	χ^2=8.35 (5); N.S.
(early) retired	12%	8%	
unemployed	2%	2%	
full-time homemaker	14%	20%	
student/pupil	11%	7%	
different	4%	2%	
Member of a public library:			
yes	50%	50%	χ^2=0 (1); N.S.
no	50%	50%	

Table 4.1: Sample characteristics of the pilot study compared to TBO data

Characteristics of respondents	This study (N=82)	TBO select (N=2134)	Chi-Square (D.F.) Sign.
Member of a book club:			
yes	31%	28%	χ^2=0.45 (1); N.S.
no	69%	72%	
Read literature in the previous twelve months:			
yes	77%	48%	χ^2=33.69 (1); p<.01
no	23%	52%	
Read romance novels in the previous twelve months:			
yes	70%	47%	χ^2=21.24 (1); p<.01
no	30%	53%	
Read mystery novels in the previous twelve months:			
yes	85%	59%	χ^2=22.92 (1); p<.01
no	15%	41%	
Reading Intensity:			
1 low	1%	5%	χ^2=11.53 (5); p<.05
2	1%	5%	
3	11%	8%	
4	17%	15%	
5	38%	29%	
6 high	32%	38%	

The results in the Table show that the sample was not representative regarding educational level (χ^2=34.32 (6); p<.01): it appears that university trained readers of books are overrepresented. The reading behaviour of the respondents in the samples also differed slightly. A larger proportion of respondents in our sample reported having read at least one literary fiction title in the previous twelve months (77% against 48%; χ^2=33.69 (1); p<.01). The same holds for the readers of romance and mystery novels (70% versus 47%; χ^2=21.24 (1); p<.01 and 85% versus 59%; χ^2=22.92 (1); p<.01 respectively). With respect to the frequency of reading books, less frequent readers were apparently underrepresented whereas the most frequent readers were slightly overrepresented. Thus, though there were no substantial differences with regard to sociodemographics, our sample differs from the 'select' population in terms of reported reading behaviour. This is a phenomenon that is commonly found in studies investigating cultural participation (Kamphuis, 1991).

4.2.2 MEASURES

Validated psychometrical measures of familiarity with fiction were not available and had to be developed. Items were selected for the scales (see Appendix 4.1). This selection was based mainly on previous consumer research. For some of the

items, agreement was measured on a five-point scale where '1' was 'don't agree at all' and '5' 'completely agree'. For other items, the frequency of occurrence of consumer behaviours was inquired about on a five-point scale where '1' was 'never' and '5' was 'very often'.[26] In Chapter Two, it was argued that familiarity is obtained through product consumption and information-gathering behaviour. The operationalisations of the consumption and information-gathering dimension will be discussed sequentially (see also Appendix 4.1).

4.2.2.1 Familiarity with consumption

In Chapter Three, four types of behaviours were distinguished that provided content to consumption-related familiarity, namely book reading, genre preferences, orientation towards newly-published books, and variety-seeking behaviour. The operationalisations of these facets of consumption are discussed below.

Book reading. The four-question reading-intensity measure used by Stokmans (1996) was modified. Omitting item two (see Appendix 4.2) improved Cronbach's alpha from .68 to .81 for the final three-item scale. Scores on the three-item scale were averaged and ranged from 1.33 through 6 (M=4.83 on a six-point scale; s.d.=1.06).

Genre preferences. Genre preferences pertained to three categories of fiction (TBO, 1995): literature, romance, and mystery/suspense. In the questionnaire, literature was broken down into originally Dutch literary fiction, and foreign literary fiction translated into Dutch, foreign literary fiction in the original language (British/American/German/French). Romance novels encompassed regional novels, family sagas, historical novels, and Harlequin-type novels. Finally, mystery/suspense included thrillers, adventure stories, spy novels, detectives, war novels, horror, science fiction, and fantasy.

Respondents were asked to indicate whether or not they had read books from each of these genres in the previous twelve months and, if so, how many books belonged to each of the categories of literature, romance, and mystery/suspense. For each of these types of books, a proportion was computed by dividing the number of fiction titles read from each genre category by the total number of novels read in the previous twelve months. Subsequently, the ratio was computed by multiplying these proportions with the scores on the reading intensity scale. In this way, three new variables were constructed which were indicative of the degree of familiarity with each genre category. The reading of literature had a mean of 1.58 and a standard deviation of 1.44. The reading of

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[26] Since the interpretation of labels attached to numerical scores may be idiosyncratic, only the scale ends one and five were labelled to give the scales a more continuous character.

romance novels had a mean of 1.17 and a standard deviation of 1.31. The mean of the reading of mystery novels was 1.92, while its standard deviation was 1.52.

Orientation towards newly-published books. Orientation towards newly-published fiction titles was defined as a general interest in (reading) newly-published books. It was measured using a seven-item scale (see Appendix 4.1), partly derived from the Goldsmith and Hofacker's Domain Specific Innovativeness Scale (Flynn and Goldsmith, 1993). This scale was chosen due to its close correspondence with our definition of orientation towards newly-published books. The scale used in this study had a Cronbach's alpha of .82. Scores on the scale were averaged. The scale mean for the entire sample was 2.61 with a standard deviation of .81. The range of scores ranged from 1.14 to 4.29 and thus almost completely covered the entire range of possible scores.

Variety seeking. The final indicator of consumption-related familiarity, variety seeking, was measured on a three-item scale. Based on the definition given by Kahn et al. (1986), three items were formulated. The first item inquired into the frequency with which respondents read one or more fiction titles in a row by one and the same author. The same was asked about theme and genre. The scores ranged from 1 to 5 with 1 is 'never' and 5 is 'very often'. Cronbach's alpha of the final scale was .83. The scores on the three items were reverse coded and averaged, resulting in a mean of 2.53 (s.d.=1.02).

4.2.2.2 Familiarity with information gathering

Two categories of information gathering were distinguished: non-marketeer-dominated interpersonal communication (NMDIC), and marketeer-dominated impersonal communication (MDIC). Domain product-specific multi-items were used to assess the familiarity with information gathering for NMDIC and MDIC.

Non-marketeer-dominated interpersonal communication

NMDIC was supposed to have three indicators, that is, opinion leadership, opinion seeking, and interpersonal communication.

Opinion leadership. The scales for opinion leadership developed by Kings and Summer (1970) and by Childers (1986) are the most widely-used in consumer research. However, as Flynn and Goldsmith (1993) pointed out, the scales are not without flaws. Some items are unidirectional and measure frequency of behaviour considered typical of an opinion leader. Other items, however, are bidirectional and assume that a person is either a high opinion leader or a high opinion receiver within the same domain. Since opinion leadership does not exclude opinion seeking, an explicit distinction was made in this study between actively asking for opinions (opinion seeking) and acting as a source of

information and/or influence for others (opinion leadership).

The items measuring opinion leadership drew on previous work by Childers (1986), Feick and Price (1987), and King and Summers (1970). The final scale contained three items indicating the degree to which a reader of fiction served as a source of information for others, and three items measuring the influence one tended to exert while engaging in interpersonal communication. Cronbach's alpha was slightly improved from .79 to .80, by removing one item from the analyses (see Appendix 4.2). For the final 5-item scale (1 is 'never'; 5 is 'very often') Cronbach's alpha was .80, showing acceptable levels of reliability. Scores ranged between 1.00 and 4.20 and thus almost completely covered the entire range of possible scores (M=2.46; s.d.= .79).

Opinion seeking. Opinion seeking was measured on a 4-item scale partly derived from items used by Venkatraman (1990). Items were selected and formulated in a way that minimised confounding with measurements of opinion leadership and interpersonal communication. For the opinion seeking scale, Cronbach's alpha was .85. Scores ranged from 1 is 'never' to 5 is 'very often' (M=2.47; s.d.=.94).

Interpersonal communication. It was assumed that people talk about books without explicitly asking for opinions or serving as a source of information. Three items for interpersonal communication were phrased in such a way that neutrality was maintained with respect to the direction of communication, in order to avoid confounds with the act of actively seeking information about books or the act of providing information as a source of information about books. The interpersonal communication scale had a Cronbach's alpha of .84 (M=2.96; s.d.=1.00; scores ranging from 1 is 'never' to 5 is 'very often').

Marketeer-dominated impersonal communication

MDIC is expressed by mass-media usage, retail browsing, and (distribution) channel visiting.

Mass-media usage. A three-item scale was used for measuring mass-media usage. Respondents were asked to rate on five-point scales the frequency of occurrence of a specific search activity in general (ranging from never to very often), thus expressing their familiarity with mass-media usage in a marketeer-dominated environment. Cronbach's alpha was reliable with a value of .85 (M=2.62; s.d.=1.14).

Retail browsing. For retail browsing, a two-item five-point scale (ranging from '1' 'never' to '5' 'very often') assessed ongoing search. Cronbach's alpha was .93 (M=3.31; s.d.=1.28).

Distribution-channel visiting. Distribution-channel visiting was operationalised by inquiring separately into the frequency with which respondents visited bookstores (M=4.51; s.d.=1.77) and public libraries (M=3.37; s.d.=2.24). The frequency of their visits was rated on a seven-point scale. The categories ranged from 1 is 'one or more times a week' to 7 is '(almost) never'.

4.2.2.3 Involvement

Involvement was measured by a set of multi-items that drew on previous work by several researchers (see e.g., Venkatraman, 1990; Bloch, 1980). Following Richins and Bloch (1986), items were worded in such a way that the internal trait of involvement, rather than its outputs, was measured, in order to avoid possible confounding with other measures used in this study. This resulted in a five-item scale (see Appendix 4.1). Item five was left out since it had no discriminating power (see Appendix 4.2). For the resulting four-item scale, Cronbach's alpha showed satisfactory levels of reliability (.79). The scale mean for the entire sample was 3.92 with a standard deviation of .84, and scores ranged from 1.75 to 5 (median=4.00).

4.2.2.4 Sociodemographics

The following sociodemographic data were requested in order to determine the representativeness of the sample, as was done in section 4.2.1: gender, age, and level of education.

In order to deal with possible order effects, two versions of the questionnaire were prepared, in which the order of the scale items was changed. No significant differences were found between the two versions on the variables investigated in this study ($p>.05$). Table 4.2 summarises the constructs that were measured in the questionnaire.

Inspection of Table 4.2 makes clear that the mean score for reading intensity was higher than the scale centre and the distribution was non-normal as shown by the Kolmogorov-Smirnov z-statistic ($p<.05$). As for genre preferences, the reading of literature and mystery novels occured to a more or less equal extent, whereas the reading of romances occurs less frequently. Romance novels reading had a non-normal distribution ($p<.05$) and was positively skewed.

Orientation towards newly-published books and variety seeking both had a mean close to the scale centre, sufficient dispersion, a highly satisfactory reliability score and a normal distribution ($p>.05$). The same measures of dispersion were found for opinion leadership, opinion seeking, interpersonal communication, and mass-media usage.

Table 4.2: Univariate statistics for the familiarity constructs

Construct	# of items	M (s.d.)	Scale range	Alpha	K-S	p	N
FAMILIARITY: Consumption							
Reading intensity	3	4.83 (1.06)	1-6	.81	1.45	<.05	82
The reading of literature	1	1.58 (1.44)	-	-	1.27	>.05	74
The reading of romance novels	1	1.17 (1.31)	-	-	1.59	<.05	74
The reading of mystery novels	1	1.92 (1.52)	-	-	.90	>.05	74
Orientation towards newly-published books	7	2.61 (.81)	1-5	.82	.74	>.05	81
Variety seeking	3	2.53 (1.02)	1-5	.83	1.13	>.05	82
FAMILIARITY: NMDIC							
Opinion leadership	5	2.46 (.79)	1-5	.80	.76	>.05	82
Opinion seeking	4	2.47 (.94)	1-5	.85	.72	>.05	82
Interpersonal communication	3	2.96 (1.00)	1-5	.84	.74	>.05	81
FAMILIARITY: MDIC							
Mass-media usage	3	2.62 (1.14)	1-5	.85	.91	>.05	81
Retail browsing	2	3.31 (1.28)	1-5	.93	1.13	>.05	81
Retail visiting	1	4.51 (1.77)	1-7	-	1.64	<.05	82
Library visiting	1	3.37 (2.24)	1-7	-	2.25	<.05	81
CONSUMER CHARACTERISTIC							
Involvement	4	3.92 (.84)	1-5	.79	1.05	>.05	80

M=mean; s.d.=standard deviation; Alpha=Cronbach's alpha; K-S z=Kolmogorov-Smirnov z-statistic; p=p-value; N=sample size

The means of the variables retail browsing, retail visiting, and involvement lay above the scale mean. Retail visiting and library visiting had a non-normal distribution ($p<.05$), whereas the distributions of mass-media usage, retail browsing, and involvement were normal ($p>.05$). Clearly, the sample consisted of respondents who were moderately to highly involved with reading fiction, read rather frequently, and visited the bookstore relatively often (on an ongoing search basis).

All scales had sufficient reliability: Cronbach's alpha ranged from .79 through .93. Missing cases were included by computing an average score for each familiarity measure on the basis of the number of items filled in by the respondent. In general, the familiarity measures possessed satisfactory psychometric properties.

4.3 RESULTS

First, a factor analysis is reported to simultaneously validate the operationalisations of familiarity and to determine the dimensionality. Subsequently, differences in familiarity are assessed according to involvement.

4.3.1 EMPIRICAL TESTING OF PROPOSITION 1: DIMENSIONALITY OF FAMILIARITY

Proposition 1 in Chapter Two states that familiarity with fiction is a multidimensional construct. In the previous Chapter, three groups of consumer behaviour were distinguished: consumption, NMDIC, and MDIC behaviour. On the basis of this distinction, the following hypothesis was derived:

Hypothesis 4.1:
Familiarity is a three-dimensional construct that consists of consumption behaviour, NMDIC, and MDIC.

To examine this hypothesis, a principal component analysis was performed on the individual items that operationalised familiarity, using pairwise deletion of missing cases. The correlation matrix for the familiarity variables was examined for coherence. Bartlett's test of sphericity was large (1896.66) and the significance level was small (.00), so it appears unlikely that the correlation matrix used in the factor analysis was an identity matrix. This makes factor-analysis appropriate.

In Table 4.3, the initial eigenvalues are reported of the factors with eigenvalues larger than one. The table shows that the first factor was the most important, explaining about 28% of the variance.

Table 4.3: Initial eigenvalues of the factor solution based on the items of familiarity

	Initial eigenvalues		
Component:	Total	% of variance	Cumulative %
1	9.78	27.9	27.9
2	4.03	11.5	39.4
3	3.56	10.2	49.6
4	2.04	5.8	55.5
5	1.58	4.5	60.0
6	1.39	4.0	63.9
7	1.30	3.7	67.7
8	1.20	3.4	71.1
9	1.05	3.0	74.1

The eigenvalues in Table 4.3 showed a distinct break between the third and the fourth factor. The scree-plot (see Appendix 4.3) presented a break between the steep slope of the three large factors and the gradual trailing off of the remaining factors. Thus, the three-factor solution was examined. The factor loadings and the communalities for the items in the three-factor solution are reported in Table 4.4 (See also Appendix 4.3).

The three-factor solution explained about 50% of the variance. The varimax rotated Factor 1 is of special interest here, since it combined the impersonal communication measures with several items operationalising the content of consumption, that is orientation towards newly-published books, and the reading of literature. This makes it harder to label. For the sake of convenience, it is labelled MDIC. Factor 2 suggested NMDIC, since all interpersonal communication items loaded on it. One opinion leadership item loaded both on Factor 1 and Factor 2. In retrospect, this is understandable: the statement explicitly asked about the frequency with which a given individual was requested to give information about newly-published books: consumers who are oriented towards newly-published books as well as opinion leaders are likely to be perceived as being experts on this topic. The same was found for start talking about books when in the company of others: both types of consumers are likely to do so. Finally, Factor 3 consisted of reading intensity, variety seeking, the reading of mystery novels, and visiting the library and is - for the present - labelled 'consumption'. Reading romance novels did not load sufficiently high on any of the three factors, the factor loading being highest on Factor 2 (.30).

Inspection of the communalities shows that eight items did not fit well in the factor solution (communalities <.40). In this group were the three genre preferences items: the amount of variance explained by the individual factors for these eight items ranged from 4 to 12 percent. This indicates that a three-factor solution was not completely successful in describing the relationships between all individual items within the correlation matrix. Since most of the consumption indicators were distributed over three factors (see Table 4.4), a four-factor solution was examined. An attempt was made to determine whether the items would eventually load on a fourth factor and whether the number of variables with low communalities (<.40) would decrease.

A four-factor solution brought little change (see Appendix 4.4). The difference with the three-factor-solution was that the variety-seeking items loaded on the fourth factor, explaining an additional six percent of the variance (eigenvalue = 2.04; total variance explained = 55.5%). The number of items with communalities lower than .40 decreased from eight to five. The communality of the reading of literature rose to .52, whereas the reading of mystery novels increased to just above .40. The reading of romance novels still fitted poorly with a communality of .29. The reading of literature now loaded above .40 on both Factor 1 and Factor 4. The factor-loadings of the items on the fourth factor - which could be labelled as variety seeking - were all positive suggesting that variety seeking is typical of those who read literature, but not of those who read

Table 4.4: Items, factor loadings and communalities of the familiarity data

Items (translated from Dutch)		Factor			
		1	2	3	h^2
MASS1	How often do you watch programs about books on television?	.69			.525
MASS2	How often do you read the book sections in newspapers or magazines?	.80			.686
MASS3	How often do you read book reviews in newspapers or magazines?	.71			.603
RETAIL1	How often do you visit bookstores for their fiction without having the intention of buying a particular book?	.76			.582
RETAIL2	How often do you visit a bookstore, just to browse through their fiction?	.77			.601
FREQWINK	On average, how often do you visit a location where fiction books are sold (e.g., bookstore, branch of a book club, book market, etc.)?	.68			.522
INNOVAT1	I am very interested in newly-published books	.83			.697
INNOVAT2	I am well-informed on the most recently published books.	.72			.553
INNOVAT3	In general, I am not acquainted with the names of the authors who have recently made their debut (reverse coded).	.54			.348
INNOVAT4	How often do you read newly-published books before they appear in the top ten?	.55			.337
INNOVAT5	How often do you search for information on newly-published books?	.60			.444
INNOVAT6	How often do you read newly-published books before you heard about them from others?	.72			.567
INNOVAT7	How often do you read the debuts by unknown new authors?	.52			.296
FLIT	Product variable of proportion of literature read and reading intensity	.50*			.309
INFOSEE1	How often do you talk to others about a specific book before you actually read it yourself?		.69		.506
INFOSEE2	How often do you ask others for their opinion about a book before you read it yourself?		.81		.675
INFOSEE3	How often do you ask others for their opinion about books you are considering reading?		.71		.513

Table 4.4: Items, factor loadings and communalities of the familiarity data

Items (translated from Dutch)		Factor			
		1	2	3	h^2
INFOSEE4	How often do you ask others which books they can recommend for reading?		.77		.595
INFLUEN2	How often are you the one who starts talking about books when in the company of others?	.41	.54		.467
INFLUEN3	When talking about books, how often do you advise others, without being asked, to read a book you liked very much?		.79		.231
SOURCE1	How often do others ask you for information about newly-published books?	.57	.50		.583
SOURCE2	How often do others ask you about books you have read?		.70		.534
SOURCE3	How often do others ask you to advise them which books to read?		.69		.560
INTERP1	How often do you discuss with others which books are worth reading?		.82		.736
INTERP2	How often do you compare your opinions on books you have recently read with those of others?		.75		.729
INTERP3	How often do you talk about books with others?		.67		.606
FROM	Product variable of proportion of romances read and reading intensity		.30		.234
LEESFREQ	On average, how often do you spend time reading books?			.65	.447
LEESLAAT	How long ago was it that you last finish a book? (*reverse coded)			.58	.344
LEESAANT	On average, how many books do you read in a year?			.73	.543
AFWISAUT	How often do you read several books in a row by one and the same author?			-.67*	.486
AFWISOND	How often do you read several books in a row about one and the same theme?			-.69*	.495
AFWISGEN	How often do you read several books in a row from one and the same genre?			-.63*	.401
FSPAN	Product variable of proportion of mystery novels read and reading intensity			.58	.416
FREQBIEB	On average, how often do you visit the library to borrow books for yourself?			.46	.211

The component matrix was rotated using varimax orthogonal rotation; the cutoff for inclusion of a variable on a factor was .40.
* these items loaded on the fourth factor in the four-factor solution

mystery novels, as was expressed by the negative factor-loadings in the three-factor solution. MDIC occurred more often in combination with an orientation towards newly-published books than with the reading of literature.

Basically, the structure of the four-factor solution did not differ from that of the three-factor solution. The structure of familiarity as proposed in our theory was not completely covered. Since the three-factor model is the most parsimonious, the three-factor solution was used in the further study. This decision is also supported by the eigenvalues and the proportion of variance explained by the factors, as well as the examination of the scree-plot of the three-factor solution.

On the basis of the three-factor solution, it was concluded that marketeer-dominated impersonal communication (MDIC), non-marketeer-dominated interpersonal communication (NMDIC), and the reading-intensity aspect of consumption were separated from each other by distinct factors. Each represented a coherent set of interrelated behaviours. Consequently, hypothesis 4.1 is partially confirmed.

Most of the aspects of consumption did not belong to one single factor in the factor solution. All of the items measuring orientation towards newly-published books loaded on Factor 1, together with mass-media usage and retail browsing. All of the items indicative of genre preferences were likewise scattered across the three factors too. Thus far, information gathering appears to be related to genre preferences in a sense that this behaviour is most typical for readers of literature. MDIC correlated with an orientation towards newly-published books and the reading of literature. NMDIC co-occurred with reading romance novels, and intensity of reading books with the reading of mystery novels and library visiting.

Most items indicating orientation towards newly-published books, and the reading of literature, romance novels, or mystery novels had low communalities. This suggests that the extent to which certain types of behaviour co-occur differs according to the type of consumption, e.g., genre preferences and older versus newly-published. Solely on the basis of the factor analysis, no firm conclusions can be drawn regarding the role of type of consumption for familiarity. This uncertainty justifies paying special attention in subsequent analyses to the type of consumption, in particular genre preferences.

Factor analysis was used to attempt to describe - as parsimoniously as possible - the structure in a correlation matrix by representing the relationships between a set of variables by means of common factors. But factor analysis does not allow the direct assessment of the homogeneity of dimensions of familiarity in terms of coherence, while likewise permitting the assessment of the heterogeneity between the dimensions. An average correlation analysis was performed to achieve this aim.

4.3.2 EXAMINING THE COHERENCE OF THE DIMENSIONS OF FAMILIARITY: AVERAGE CORRELATIONS

The average correlations express the coherence between the scales for each separate dimension. The overall average correlation between all individual familiarity scales was 0.12. The diminutive size of this score suggests that familiarity is a hybrid construct, consisting of independent dimensions of consumer behaviour. The average correlations between the separate dimensions of consumer behaviour ranged from .07 to .26 (see the lower triangle on the left in Table 4.5). The average correlations between the scales for each separate dimension are reported in Table 4.5.

Table 4.5: The average correlations between the scales for each dimension of familiarity

Dimension:	Consumption:	NMDIC	MDIC
Consumption:	-.058		
NMDIC	.067	.680	
MDIC	.076	.263	.201

Overall average correlation is .115
N of cases: 80

Consumption encompasses reading books in general (reading intensity), the reading of literature, romances, and mystery novels, orientation towards newly-published books, and variety-seeking behaviour. The average correlation between the consumption scales was -.06; correlations ranged from -.49 to .41 (see Appendix 4.5). Apparently, the scales constituting consumption were too diverse to be subsumed under one general construct. Obviously, they did not measure the same underlying construct which is in line with the results of the factor analysis.

The scales that operationalised NMDIC had an average correlation of .68 with correlations ranging from .55 to .75. These correlations are substantial and it is not surprising that these items all loaded on one factor. From a psychometric perspective, a total of only 46% of the variance was explained by these three scales. Their average correlation was not sufficiently high to warrant regarding all of the items as indicators of one and the same construct (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994). Consequently, NMDIC was examined as an element of familiarity on the level of the individual scales of opinion leadership, opinion seeking, and interpersonal communication.

MDIC includes mass-media usage, retail browsing, and retail and library visiting. The average correlations between these scales was .20, which is slightly higher than the average overall correlation of .12; correlations ranged from -.21 to .61 (Appendix 4.5). Examination of the correlations reported in the Appendix

(see Appendix 4.5) shows that the low average correlation is the result of library visiting frequency. Upon removing this variable, the average correlation between the remaining scales increased to .51. This was significantly higher than the average correlation of .12. Library visiting did not correlate strongly with MDIC in line with the result that the former variable loaded on a different factor. Familiarity with distribution-channel visiting differed according to library and retail visiting but an average correlation of .51 was not sufficient to group the scales under one general construct (Nunnally and Bernstein, 1994). Like NMDIC, MDIC will be examined at the level of the individual scales.

The results of the factor analysis and the average correlations suggest that, in general, each scale - as an indicator of familiarity - provides unique information. Though there are common factors underlying the scales, in this exploratory study composite scores are not computed by summing up scales. Valuable information will be lost by doing so. Thus, familiarity and its relation to expertise will be examined in depth by focussing on the individual scales. The high reliability of the scales and the results of the factor-analysis, as well as the low average intercorrelations justify this choice. However, the individual scales will continue to be subsumed under the headings 'consumption', MDIC, and NMDIC.

4.3.3 EMPIRICAL TESTING OF PROPOSITION 2 AND 3: THE EFFECT OF INVOLVEMENT ON FAMILIARITY

It has been argued that involvement is a driving force behind consumer behaviour. Involvement is supposed to affect the degree and structure of familiarity. More highly involved consumers may engage in more varied activities than less involved consumers: the structure of familiarity will differ according to involvement. Highly-involved consumers are likely to engage in these activities more frequently than people with a lower degree of involvement: the degree of familiarity will differ according to involvement.

4.3.3.1 Involvement and the degree of familiarity: Independent sample T-tests

Proposition 2 states that the degree of familiarity with fiction increases with involvement. This leaded to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 4.2a:
Consumers who are lowly-involved with fiction have a lower degree of familiarity than consumers who are highly-involved.

The differences in means between less and more highly-involved consumers were tested. Since the mean (3.92) and the median (4) of the involvement variable were almost equal, two groups were formed (low versus high) based on a median split. This yielded sufficient cases for each involvement group. Since the range of values of the involvement variable was 3.25, with a minimum of

1.75 and a maximum of 5, it should be noted that in this study 'low' involvement is not to be taken in an absolute sense. The degree of involvement of one group is low in comparison with the other group. Computations were made using z-scores. This made it possible to examine the differences between the groups in terms of the deviation towards the mean of the total sample. The use of z-scores had no effect on the t-values computed (Hays, 1988). Table 4.6 reports the descriptive statistics for the two involvement groups, and the results of the t-tests.

Table 4.6: Means and standard deviations for the low- and the high-involvement group and the independent samples t-tests

	Low Involvement (N=43)	High Involvement (N=35)		
Familiarity measure	Mean (s.d.)	Mean (s.d.)	Mean Difference	Independent samples t-tests (one-tailed)
FAMILIARITY: Consumption				
Reading intensity	-.41 (1.05)	.46 (.71)	-.87	t=-4.39 df=73.88 **p<.01**
The reading of literature	-.26 (.88)	.36 (1.04)	-.62	t=-2.75 df=70 **p<.01**
The reading of romance novels	.02 (.98)	-.12 (.88)	.14	t=.63 df=70 p>.05
The reading of mystery novels	-.04 (1.03)	-.00 (.96)	-.04	t=.18 df=70 p>.05
Orientation towards newly-published books	-.36 (.80)	.46 (1.02)	-.82	t=-4.00 df=78 **p<.01**
Variety seeking	.12 (1.07)	-.19 (.87)	.31	t=1.41 df=78 p>.05
FAMILIARITY: NMDIC				
Opinion seeking	.04 (1.07)	-.00 (.91)	.04	t=.18 df=78 p>.05
Opinion leadership	-.26 (.98)	.35 (.91)	-.61	t=-2.90 df=78 **p=.01**
Interpersonal communication	-.19 (.96)	.27 (.96)	-.46	t=-2.15 df=78 **p<.05**
FAMILIARITY: MDIC				
Mass-media usage	-.23 (.90)	.30 (1.03)	-.53	t=-2.47 df=78 **p<.01**
Retail browsing	-.32 (.92)	.41 (.94)	-.73	t=-3.55 df=78 **p<.01**
Retail visiting	-.25 (.94)	.25 (1.01)	-.50	t=-3.82 df=78 **p<.01**
Library visiting	-.33 (.96)	.44 (.836)	-.77	t=-2.26 df=77 **p<.05**

Respondents with a low degree of involvement tended to score below average on the familiarity measures, whereas highly-involved consumers scored above average. For reading intensity, the difference in means was significant at a minimal 5 percent level. The difference was in the expected direction: less-involved consumers were less familiar with reading fiction in general than consumers who were highly involved. The scores on the variables measuring the reading of literature and orientation towards newly-published books were also significantly different ($p<.01$) and differences were in the expected direction: intense involvement increased the frequency of the reading of literature and the orientation towards newly-published books. There were no differences between the two involvement groups in familiarity regarding the reading of romances, and mystery novels, variety seeking, and opinion seeking ($p>.05$). These behaviours characterised readers of fiction, regardless of their involvement, whereas the reading of literature and being oriented towards newly-published books was more characteristic for the highly-involved reader.

With respect to NMDIC, highly-involved consumers were significantly more ($p<.05$) familiar with opinion leadership and interpersonal communication than the less-involved group. Opinion seeking was equally often engaged in by both groups ($p>.05$).

Finally, there were significant differences in mass-media usage, retail browsing, retail visiting, and library visiting ($p<.05$). The differences in mean were in line with expectations and suggested that highly-involved readers of fiction are more familiar with these activities than the lower-involved readers of fiction. Hypothesis 4.2a is partially confirmed.

4.3.3.2 Involvement and the degree of familiarity: Correlations

To assess whether there was a linear relationship at the basis of the differences in familiarity between less and more highly-involved respondents, an additional hypothesis was derived from Proposition 2:

Hypothesis 4.2b:
The degree of familiarity is positively associated with the amount of involvement.

Table 4.7 shows the correlations between the familiarity measures and involvement with reading fiction.

All correlations between involvement and the familiarity measures were positive and significant at a minimal 5 percent-level, except for the correlations between involvement and the reading of romances and/or mystery novels, variety-seeking behaviour, and opinion seeking. The significant correlations indicate that there is a positive relation between involvement with reading fiction and the degree of familiarity with fiction. However, the sizes of the correlations differed, depending on the type of consumer behaviour: the amount of explained

Table 4.7: Correlations between the familiarity measures and involvement (N=80)

Indicator	Involvement
FAMILIARITY: Consumption	
Reading intensity	.439**
The reading of literature	.289**
The reading of romance novels	-.048
The reading of mystery novels	-.036
Orientation towards newly-published books	.431**
Variety seeking	-.152
FAMILIARITY: NMDIC	
Opinion seeking	.055
Opinion leadership	.385**
Interpersonal communication	.241*
FAMILIARITY: MDIC	
Mass-media usage	.319**
Retail browsing	.324**
Retail visiting	.358**
Library visiting	.319**

* correlation is significant at α =.05 (one-tailed)
**correlation is significant at α =.01 (one-tailed)

variance ranged from 0 to 19%. The lack of correlation between the reading of romances, and the reading of mystery novels, variety seeking, and opinion seeking, on the one hand, and involvement, on the other, suggests that these behaviours occur without being affected by involvement. Hypothesis 4.2b is partially confirmed.

4.3.3.3 Involvement and the structure of familiarity: Weighted MDS

Proposition 3 states that the structure of familiarity differs according to level of involvement. This proposition was translated directly into the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 4.3:
The structure of familiarity differs between the lowly-involved and the highly-involved readers of fiction.

To examine the extent to which familiarity measures occurred simultaneously under conditions of low versus high degrees of involvement, a weighted MDS (WMDS) was conducted, also known as an individual difference scaling.

WMDS[27] accounts for differences in the type of familiarity between involvement groups by simultaneously analysing the data for both groups.

As in the previous section, two involvement groups were formed on the basis of the median split. Each involvement group was represented by a Euclidean matrix. The matrix that served as an input for MDS was based on the Euclidean distances between the different familiarity indices. Euclidean distances have the disadvantage that they depend on the units of measurement of the variables: variables that are measured in larger numbers will contribute more to distance scores than variables measured in smaller numbers. Thus, our input matrixes contained z-scores. Weighted MDS simultaneously analysed these matrixes. Table 4.8 reports the stress values (Kruskal's stress formula 1) for the two- and the three-dimensional solution.

Table 4.8: Stress values of the weighted MDS solutions

Number of dimensions	Lowly-involved group	Highly-involved group	Average
2	.242	.171	.209
3	.117	.138	.128

The average stress value decreased from .21 to .13 when the number of dimensions was changed from two to three. According to Backhaus (1990), a stress value of .15 indicates a reasonably good fit. For the three-dimensional solution, however, the total number of parameters estimated (the number of stimulus coordinates plus the number of weights, if any) was large relative to the number of data values in our data matrix. The results were not stable since there

[27] A classical Euclidean MDS results in a stimulus configuration - labelled the stimulus space X - that indicates which indices of familiarity occur simultaneously along two or more dimensions. In other words, two familiarity indices that are very similar in degree are represented by two points in space that are close together, and two indices that do not occur together (and thus are perceived by the technique as dissimilar in nature) are represented by two points that are far apart in a Euclidean space. The weighted Euclidean model then assumes that the individual groups of involved consumers vary in the importance attached to the dimensions of the stimulus space X. This space represents the information that is commonly shared about the observed structure of the behaviour across the individual groups. The information that is unique to each individual group of involvement about the observed structure of the stimuli is represented in the weight space W. While for one group one dimension is of importance in differentiating between familiarity indices, for another group another dimension may be of importance. These differences in consumer behaviour between less and more intensely involved readers of fiction, are derived from the 'subjects weights'.

was not enough data to lead to a precise estimation of the parameter values. Thus, it was advisable to reduce the number of parameters by requesting fewer dimensions. The analysis was limited to a maximum of two dimensions.

On average, the two-dimensional solution accounted for 79% of the variance in the data (74% for the lowly-involved group; 85% for the highly-involved group), indicating a reasonable fit. The average stress value of .21 was sufficient (Backhaus, 1990). The importance of the dimensions of the stimulus configuration in describing differences between the two involvement groups is reflected by the subject weights. These weights are given in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9: Differences between the involvement groups expressed in subject weights

		dimension	
	Weirdness	1	2
Involvement group			
Low	.615	.824	.237
High	.534	.352	.849
Overall importance		.403	.389

It can be derived from Table 4.9, that Dimension 1 was three times as important as dimension 2 in describing the data of the less-involved group. Dimension 2 was nearly three times as important in describing familiarity clusters for the more-involved group as Dimension 1. The relatively large differences in subject weights show that the two groups differed in the extent to which familiarity indices co-occurred. This, in turn, is in line with the hypothesis: the structure of familiarity differs between the lowly- and the highly-involved consumers of fiction. The hypothesis is confirmed.

It was expected that the structure of familiarity would become more elaborate as involvement increased. To examine this assumption, the stimulus configuration of the two-dimensional WMDS solution was studied. This is depicted in Figure 4.1: the farther away the behaviours are in the dimensional space, the less likely they are to co-occur in terms of frequency of occurrence (degree). The stimulus coordinates[28] of the familiarity indices for the total group of respondents are reported in Appendix 4.6.

Globally, three groups of familiarity indices can be identified: the indices the reading of romance novels, opinion seeking, and variety seeking, the indices the reading of mystery novels, library visiting, and reading intensity, and the indices opinion leadership, interpersonal communication, retail visiting, retail browsing,

[28] These stimulus coordinates can be interpreted directly for each dimension, taking the individual weights for both involvement groups into account.

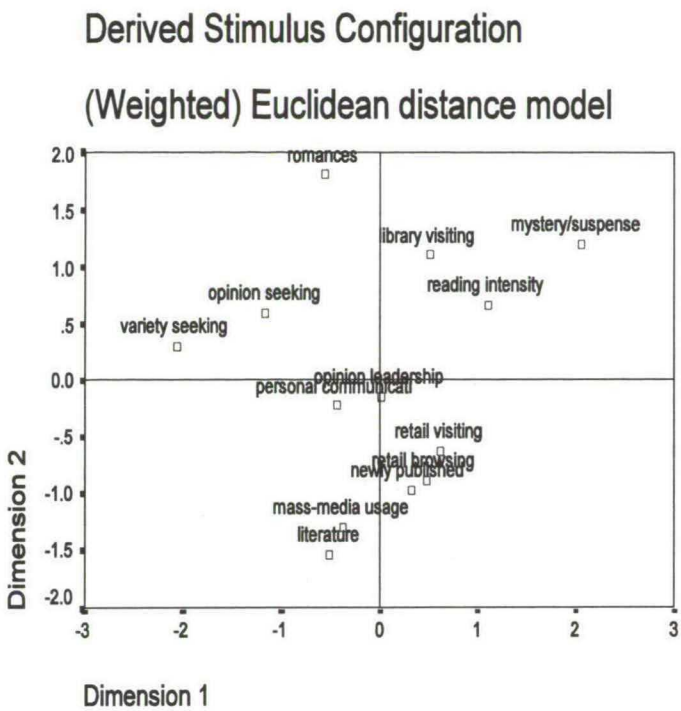

Figure 4.1: Derived stimulus configuration for the two-dimensional solution

orientation towards newly-published books, mass-media usage, and the reading of literature.

The position of the genre preferences indices differed on the dimensions. They are useful in describing groups of familiarity indices for both involvement groups. First, the groups of indices most typical of the 'lowly'-involved consumers are described.[29] Given that Dimension 1 was the most important for this group, it is concluded that, globally speaking, there is a group of lowly-involved consumers that is familiar with the reading of mystery novels, has a high reading intensity, is familiar with library visiting, retail browsing, and retail visiting, and has an orientation towards newly-published books. The other group of lowly-involved readers is familiar with the reading of romance novels, the reading of literature, NMDIC, mass-media usage, and variety seeking (see Figure 4.1). With respect to the content, the dimensions of the stimulus configuration correspond with the latent factors that are at the basis of the structure of familiarity of our respondents (Backhaus, 1990). On the basis of our interpretation of the stimulus configuration, Dimension 1 is interpreted as 'type

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[29] This interpretation was made in advance of the results of the cluster-analysis that is reported in the next section.

of information gathering'.[30]

Dimension 2 was the most important for describing the highly-involved group. Globally, there is a group of highly-involved readers familiar with the reading of literature, mass-media usage, retail browsing, retail visiting, opinion leadership, and interpersonal communication. There is also a group of highly-involved consumers of romance and mystery novels whose familiarity with fiction is globally limited to opinion seeking, variety seeking, library visiting, and reading on an intense basis (see Figure 4.1). The structure of familiarity is more elaborate for highly-involved consumers of literature, than for readers of romance novels and mystery novels (either more or less involved), which is not completely in line with expectations. Dimension 2 is interpreted as 'elaborateness of information gathering'.

The two-dimensional solution may have degenerated into an oversimplified structure, since we were short of a third dimension. Since some structure can be seen in the plot in Figure 4.1, the analysis is, perhaps, only partially degenerate. Though the familiarity indices cluster differently within each involvement group, the frequency of behaviour was - on average - lower for the lowly-involved group than for the highly-involved group, as is shown in Table 4.6. Since the perceptual mapping does not provide information about the sizes of the scores on the (groups of) familiarity measures, as well as the sizes of the different groups of respondents, it was felt that examining the differences in the structure of familiarity in more detail, would provide for additional insights. Thus, the following section presents a cluster analysis in which respondents are clustered according to their similarities in familiarity.

4.3.3.4 Involvement and the structure of familiarity: Cluster analysis

Cluster analysis groups respondents together on the basis of similarities in their patterns of scores on the familiarity measures. If clusters of consumers are found that differ in their familiarity, and if these groups also differ in level of involvement, this is additional evidence in support of the hypothesis that the structure of familiarity differs according to involvement. At the same time,

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[30] To simplify the interpretation of the stimulus configuration, it was decided to construct the lowly-involved group that had no weight on Dimension 2 and the highly-involved group that had no weight on Dimension 1. For the lowly-involved group that had no weight on Dimension 2, the two-dimensional space collapsed into a one-dimensional space consisting of only one dimension, namely Dimension 1. For the highly-involved group that had no weight on Dimension 1, the two-dimensional space collapsed into a one-dimensional space consisting of Dimension 2 only. The reader, however, should not neglect the fact the other dimension has some importance too in describing groups of familiarity indices within each involvement group.

information is obtained about the degree of familiarity for each cluster of respondents.

A cluster analysis was conducted on the total group of respondents. Z-scores were computed and the input matrix was constructed on the basis of Squared Euclidean distances between individuals based on the z-scores of the familiarity measures but not involvement. The latter variable was treated as an external control variable. This made it possible to cluster respondents according to similarities in familiarity with no involvement categorisation effect (e.g., categorising into high versus low). The Ward procedure was used in the clustering process. On the basis of a visual inspection of the Agglomeration Schedule and the dendogram (see Appendix 4.7 and 4.8), a three-cluster solution was examined. This solution contained a sufficiently large number of respondents per cluster.

To examine the extent to which behaviours co-occurred, the clusters were described by means of the average standardised scores. These scores express the familiarity of consumers, on average, with a specific behaviour, in comparison to the total group. The results of the cluster analysis are reported in Table 4.10.

Anova reveals that there were significant differences between the clusters on reading intensity ($F_{2,66}$=7.29; p<.01), the reading of literature ($F_{2,66}$=12.75; p<.01), the reading of romances ($F_{2,66}$=3.39; p<.05), the reading of mystery novels ($F_{2,66}$=6.61; p<.01), and orientation towards newly-published books ($F_{2,66}$=21.65; p<.01) but not variety seeking ($F_{2,66}$=1.53; p>.05). Opinion leadership ($F_{2,66}$=12.24; p<.01), opinion seeking ($F_{2,66}$=17.13; p<.01), and personal communication ($F_{2,66}$=24.58; p<.01) were also significantly different. Finally, the clusters differed significantly on mass-media usage ($F_{2,66}$=23.22; p<.01), retail browsing ($F_{2,66}$=15.25; p<.01), retail visiting ($F_{2,66}$=9.90; p<.01), and library visiting ($F_{2,66}$=3.96; p<.01). For each familiarity measure, the rank was determined of the mean of one cluster in comparison to the other two cluster groups. This ranking is used to globally describe the clusters.

Cluster 1 consists of consumers who have - compared to the other two groups - the lowest reading intensity, the lowest familiarity with the reading of literature, orientation towards newly-published books, and MDIC, medium levels of familiarity with the reading of mystery novels, variety seeking, and interpersonal communication, and the highest familiarity with the reading of romance novels and opinion seeking. Compared to the other two groups, this group of consumers is characterised by a low level of familiarity; its consumer behaviour is characterised by romance reading and opinion seeking. In comparison to the other two groups, this group has the lowest level of involvement. In an absolute sense, however, their involvement with reading fiction was relatively high with a mean of 3.43 (s.d.=.83) on a five-point scale.

Cluster 2 contains consumers who - compared to the other two groups - have the lowest level of familiarity with NMDIC and variety seeking, mediate levels of familiarity with the reading of literature and romance novels, an orientation towards newly-published books, mass-media usage, retail browsing, and retail

Table 4.10: Means, standard deviations, and rank of the familiarity measures for the three clusters of consumers

Cluster	1 (N=23)			2 (N=27)			3 (N=19)		
Familiarity measure	M	s.d.	Rank	M	s.d.	Rank	M	s.d.	Rank
FAMILIARITY: Consumption									
Reading Intensity	-.55	1.13	L	.42	.70	H	.04	.85	M
The reading of literature	-.42	.83	L	-.10	.88	M	.88	.85	H
The reading of romance novels	.32	1.02	H	-.04	.98	M	-.41	.61	L
The reading of mystery novels	-.17	1.04	M	.55	.99	H	-.36	.60	L
Orientation towards newly-published books	-.54	.88	L	-.22	.77	M	.96	.58	H
Variety seeking	.12	1.01	M	-.27	.99	L	.17	.89	H
FAMILIARITY: NMDIC									
Opinion leadership	.12	.98	M	-.56	.84	L	.63	.54	H
Opinion seeking	.67	.94	H	-.64	.70	L	.34	.85	M
Interpersonal communication	.38	.84	M	-.72	.68	L	.73	.72	H
FAMILIARITY: MDIC									
Mass-media usage	-.39	.82	L	-.36	.69	M	1.06	.84	H
Retail browsing	-.51	.72	L	-.11	1.05	M	.87	.53	H
Retail visiting	-.42	.99	L	-.04	.88	M	.74	.58	H
Library visiting	-.44	.82	L	.31	1.07	H	.06	.94	M
Involvement	3.43	.83	L	3.95	.77	M	4.42	.53	H

N=sample size; M=standardised mean; s.d.=standard deviation; L=lowest rank; M=medium rank; H=highest rank

visiting, and the highest levels of familiarity with reading fiction, the reading of mystery novels, and library visiting. Their overall familiarity with fiction is higher in comparison to the consumers in Cluster 1; their familiarity is characterised by a high reading intensity, the reading of mystery novels, and library visiting. Their involvement with reading fiction is higher compared to the respondents in cluster 1: the mean was 3.95 and the standard deviation .77.

Finally, the respondents in Cluster 3 have - compared to the other two groups - the lowest level of familiarity with the reading of romances and mystery novels. Their reading intensity is medium, as are their levels of familiarity with variety seeking, opinion seeking, and library visiting. Familiarity is heighest with the reading of literature, orientation towards newly-published books, opinion

leadership, interpersonal communication, mass-media usage, retail browsing, and retail visiting. They are characterised by high and all-round familiarity with fiction. Their involvement is highest: the involvement indicator had a mean of 4.42 on a five-point scale and a standard deviation of .53.

The mean involvement score increases from cluster 1 through cluster 3. An Anova showed that there were significant differences in involvement between the three groups ($F_{2,66}$=9.35; p<.01). Scheffé tests showed that the difference in mean involvement score between group 1 and group 2 was marginally significant (p=.05) whereas the difference between group 1 and group 3 was significant (p<.01). The difference between group 2 and 3 was not significant (p>.05).

From the observation of the standardised means, it can be seen that in the three groups an increase in involvement was accompanied by an increase in literature reading, the orientation towards newly-published books, variety seeking, mass-media usage, retail browsing, and retail visiting (L-M-H-sequence). The more highly-involved consumers were with reading fiction, the higher their familiarity with these practices. Mass-media usage was very high for the group with the highest involvement, and related strongly to the reading of literature as did opinion leadership and interpersonal communication. NMDIC was second highest for the least-involved group of consumers who were characterised by an interest in reading romance novels. Romance novel reading decreased as involvement increased (H-M-L-sequence). Reading intensity and library visiting were highest for the group at the intermediate level of involvement, lowest for the less-involved group and intermediate for the most highly involved group of consumers. Variety seeking was about average for the three groups and equally likely to occur within each group. Overall, the results of the cluster analysis support the notion that there are differences in both the degree and structure of familiarity according to involvement.

4.4 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

In this chapter, the objective was to assess the reliability of the operationalisations of familiarity. There was sufficient reliability: Cronbach's alpha's ranged from .79 through .93. The measures of dispersion indicated that the familiarity measures had satisfactory psychometric properties. The factor analysis revealed that all of the items belonging to one and the same familiarity measure loaded together on one factor.

The factor analysis also yielded that familiarity with fiction is a multidimensional construct (Hypothesis 4.1). The dimensionality as theorised was not completely recovered. The reading intensity component of consumption behaviour, NMDIC, and MDIC were found to be conceptually distinct. However, orientation towards newly-published books and the reading of literature, as part of consumption behaviour, loaded together with MDIC. Being

oriented towards newly-published books requires being informed about the latest releases. Without this information, staying updated about and reading newly-published books would be impossible. Since mass-media sources and visiting retail outlets (on an ongoing search basis) are the primary means of staying informed about new releases, it is not surprising that they occur simultaneously with MDIC. The variety-seeking items loaded together with reading intensity and the reading of mystery novels on one factor, but reading romance novels did not load on any factor. Though the genre variables did not fit well in the three-factor solution, they loaded on different factors, indicating that familiarity with information gathering may differ according to genre preferences. However, since five out of twelve items operationalising the consumption component fitted badly, no firm conclusions could be drawn about this component within the familiarity construct.

The findings of the factor analysis illustrate the need for a more explicitly multidimensional account of the familiarity variable. Since no interactions are present among the items on the dimensions of familiarity, there is no single measure of familiarity that is a measure of every dimension of familiarity. Rather than treating familiarity as a single construct, or considering various measures of familiarity as interchangeable, multiple familiarity constructs must be considered. Otherwise, examinations of the relationships between familiarity and expertise may fail. Keep in mind, that it was decided earlier to further examine the relationship between familiarity and expertise throughout the remainder of this thesis at the level of the individual familiarity measures and not to make use of one overall composite familiarity score, or composite scores at the level of the theorised dimensions.

Hypothesis 4.2a and 4.2b were derived from the proposition that the degree of familiarity differs according to the level of involvement. Independent t-tests partially supported the first hypothesis in that highly-involved consumers read significantly more (literature), were strongly oriented towards newly-published books and opinion leaders, and engaged in interpersonal communication and marketeer-dominated behaviour more frequently than readers whose involvement was of a lesser degree. The reading of romances, mystery novels, variety seeking, and opinion seeking did not differentiate between the involvement groups. This suggests that, at least to some extent, there are less- as well as highly-involved consumers who are familiar with these practices. Correlational analyses supported the independent t-tests in that significantly positive correlations were found between involvement on the one hand, and reading intensity, the reading of literature, orientation towards newly-published books, opinion leadership, interpersonal communication, and MDIC on the other hand. No significant relationship was found between involvement on the one hand, and the reading of romances, the reading of mystery novels, variety seeking, and opinion seeking on the other hand. Additional insights into this matter were gained by examining hypothesis 4.3.

Hypothesis 4.3 stated that there are differences in the structure of familiarity

between lowly- and highly-involved readers of fiction. The Weighted Multi-dimensional Scaling and the additional cluster analysis revealed that the relative importance of each aspect of familiarity depends upon the level of involvement with reading fiction.

The WMDS showed that the familiarity measures clustered together differently, depending on the level of involvement. The dimension that typifies the familiarity for the least involved group best was labelled 'type of information gathering'. On the one hand, preference for the reading of romance novels co-occurred with NMDIC. On the other hand, preferences for mystery novels co-occurred with MDIC. The former type of familiarity was the most typical for the consumers in Cluster 1 in the cluster analysis, whereas the latter was the most typical for Cluster 2 in the cluster analysis.

The second dimension was the best for describing clusters of familiarity indices of highly-involved readers of fiction. It was labelled 'elaborateness of information gathering'. On the one hand, preferences for mystery novels and romance novels occurred simultaneously with reading intensity and visiting libraries. On the other hand, the reading of literature co-occurred with NMDIC, mass-media usage, retail browsing, retail visiting, and orientation towards newly-published books. The latter type of familiarity was most typical for Cluster 3 in the cluster solution.

The cluster analysis yielded one group that had a preference for romance novels, another group that had a preference for mystery novels, and a third group that preferred to read literature. The groups differed in their use of channels to acquire fiction. The first group did not show familiarity with using the retail outlet or the libraries, the second group mainly used the library but also visited retail outlets, the third group had the highest frequency of retail outlet visits, but also of visits to public libraries. With respect to NMDIC and information divulged by the bookstore and the press, the latter group was found to have the highest familiarity with any of these practices. Their level of involvement with fiction exceeded that of the two other groups.

The three-cluster solution did not identify one group of consumers that was identified by means of WMDS. It concerns the group of highly-involved consumers with a high level of reading intensity who were familiar with the reading of romances, mystery novels, and library visiting, but not with the other practices. Inspection of a five-cluster solution (not reported here) revealed that this group was combined in the three-cluster solution with the respondents in Cluster 2. Its mean involvement score was 4.05 and close to the mean score of 3.83 for Cluster 2 in the five-cluster solution. Respondents in the unidentified group with an involvement score above the median (median=4) were analysed as highly involved in the WMDS. Consequently, though the degree and structure of familiarity of the unidentified group was closer to that of Cluster 2 than that of

Cluster 3[31] in the three-cluster solution (see Appendix 4.8), it was gathered in the WMDS with (and separated from) the group that was identified as Cluster 3 in the cluster analysis, likely as the result of our median split of 4. This also explains the lack of correlation between involvement and the reading of romances, mystery novels, and opinion seeking: both involvement groups reported familiarity with these practices. However, the highly-involved readers who were somewhat familiar with reading from the three genres, possessed almost no familiarity with NMDIC and MDIC. This either implies that these consumers were not truly involved with reading fiction or that a great deal of familiarity with NMDIC and MDIC is a function of genre preferences, in particular the reading of literature. There appears to be little overlap in the structure of familiarity between consumers who prefer romance and mystery novels to literature and the consumers who prefer literature to romance and mystery novels. The latter have the highest involvement with reading fiction.

To summarise the results about the degree and structure of familiarity along the dimension of involvement, distinctions are made between genre preferences, and familiarity epitomised by consumption, NMDIC, and MDIC behaviour. Figure 4.2 globally summarises and visualises what the results thus far suggest.[32]

What the figure suggests is that genre preferences as well as consumption behaviour, NMDIC, and MDIC are related to involvement. The columns 'involvement' and 'genre preferences' illustrate that the reading of romances is most likely to occur with the reading of mystery novels under conditions of low-level involvement: consumers either read mystery novels or romance novels or a combination of the two. However, as involvement increases, the reading of literature is more likely to occur. Although the reading of literature may go together with the reading of mystery novels and/or romances, in general, it occurs more frequently with the reading of mystery novels than with the reading of romance novels. At the highest involvement levels, genre preferences are limited to the reading of literature.

The columns 'involvement' and 'consumer behaviour' express that as people become more involved with fiction, their familiarity (intensity) with consumer behaviours increases. At the same time, the structure (diversity) of their familiarity becomes more elaborate. Sporadic readers are the most solitary: they just read fiction, without feeling the urge to communicate their experiences or to search actively for information. The least-involved readers stick to romance novels and may combine their consumption behaviour with some NMDIC. As involvement increases, the reading of mystery novels is preferred to romances

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31 The dendogram shows that one group of respondents was clearly separated from the others (respondents 67 through 41 at the bottom of the page). This group was very homogeneous and was identified as the cluster of respondents that belonged to group 3 in the three-cluster solution.

32 For an example of how to read the figure, see Appendix 4.9.

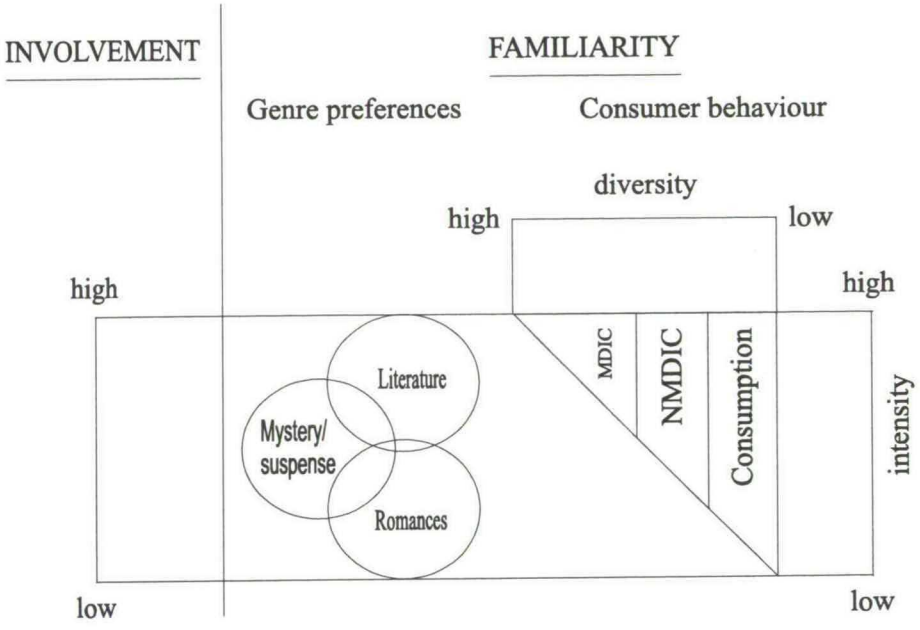

Figure 4.2: The relationship between involvement and consumer familiarity

and extended with MDIC (except for mass-media usage), but not NMDIC. When involvement with fiction is the highest, people experience strong needs for (newly-published) literary fiction, interpersonal communication, retail visiting and browsing, and information from mass-media sources, and a need to act as opinion leaders as well as seekers, needs which they actively satisfy. For these people, reading is much less of a solitary practice then most people take it to be. One firm conclusion that can be drawn from this is that a considerable degree of involvement with reading (literary) fiction is a necessary condition for a person's willingness to engage in conversations about books and, in particular, to acquire and use information about (recently published) fiction titles acquired from mass-media sources and the retail outlets.

The results of the present study need to be viewed in light of some potential limitations. The sample size was relatively small and consisted of consumers who were all relatively highly involved with the activity of reading fiction. The distinction between high and low involvement made in the text was based on a median split to ensure sufficient respondents for each category. The interpretation of the results should take place in the light of the notion that the lowly-involved consumers were not lowly involved in an absolute sense, but less involved relative to the other group of selected consumers labelled highly involved.

Genre preferences were put forward as significant individual difference

variables. In the factor-analysis, however, the genre preferences items literature and romance novels did not fit well. This suggests that the relationship with other familiarity indices, may be more complex for these genre preferences. In the subsequent chapters some additional attention will be given to preferences for the different genres and their relationship with expertise.

The data showed that familiarity differs along several dimensions and underlines the importance of involvement as a factor that is influential in reducing or enhancing the degree and structure of familiarity. It remains, however, necessary to assess the relationship between familiarity and expertise; and to assess the differing role motivation and ability may play in this relationship. This is a topic discussed in Chapter Six. It is first necessary, however, to shed some light on the contents and the measurement of expertise. This is the main focus of the next chapter.

CHAPTER 5

CONSUMER EXPERTISE

5.1 INTRODUCTION

In this chapter, different operationalisations of expertise are examined. The focus is on the selection of the expertise measures with the best psychometric properties. Furthermore, the relationship between familiarity and the most reliable expertise measures is explored.

As such, the following research objectives were defined:

1. To determine and examine the reliability of operationalisations of expertise; and
2. To explore the relationships between familiarity and expertise.

5.2 METHODOLOGY

The second study concerned measures of expertise. Additionally, a first examination of the relationship between familiarity and expertise was undertaken. Data were gathered by means of semi-structured face-to-face interviews. The interviews were guided by closed- as well as open-ended questions. The closed-end questions pertained to the familiarity measures from the previous chapter. In order to minimise task effort for our interviewees, most indicators of familiarity were single-item measures. The open-ended questions were partly used to check if the selection of indicators of familiarity and expertise were comprehensive.

5.2.1 RESPONDENTS

A convenience sample of 48 respondents was drawn. The respondents were visitors (24 male and 24 female) of a bookstore in Tilburg (N = 18), a local book club outlet (N = 17), and the Tilburg public library (N = 13). All of the participants met the requirement of having read at least one fiction title in the previous twelve months, and were aged 18 or older. The average age of the respondents was 41 (s.d.=11.58). Most of the respondents had a job (69%) and were well-educated (52% had higher vocational training, or a university degree).

5.2.2 MEASURES

The familiarity items from the previous chapter with the highest item-total correlation on the scales, were selected for the closed-ended questions (see Appendix 4.2) and checked for face validity. For some of these items, the frequency of consumer behaviour was requested on a five-point scale where '1' was '(almost) never' and '5' was 'very often'.

5.2.2.1 Familiarity with consumption

In this study, three indicators of consumption were used: book reading, genre preferences and orientation towards newly-published books. Variety seeking was not inquired after in this explorative study due to its low correlation with the other variables in the previous study.

Book reading. The first component of familiarity, book reading, was operationalised with the complete reading-intensity scale (Stokmans, 1996) (see Appendix 5.1). Again, one item in the scale had a low item-total correlation, namely the item inquiring into the amount of time spent on reading during one session. Removing this item improved Cronbach's alpha from .75 to .85 for the final three-item scale. The scores were averaged. Its distribution approximated a normal one with an average of 4.76 and a standard deviation of .18 on a six-point scale.

Genre preferences. For genre preferences, the three genre categories from the previous study were used (TBO, 1995). A more simplified version of the genre preferences measure was administered: the proportion of literature, romance novels, and mystery novels read was requested directly without specifying a time period. The categories of the Verbal Allensbach Scale (VAS), as validated by Van de Leur (1995) were taken as a starting point.

Some modifications of the VAS were made to assess the relative proportions of each of the three genre categories. Respondents had to indicate for each genre category what proportion of fiction they read of the genre categories literature, romance novels, and mystery novels. The scale categories were (almost) none, one to four, two to four, three to four, and (almost) all. The genre categories were described to the respondents using the same genre labels as the ones reported in Chapter Four.

The coding of the scores on the scale deserves some attention (Van de Leur, 1995). If proportions of 100%, 75%, 50%, 25% en 0% are ascribed to the scale categories, the categories '(almost) none' and '(almost) all' will be underscored and overscored, respectively. Based on the division of a normally-distributed continuum ranging from zero to hundred into five regions, Van de Leur (1995) argued that the middle of each interval is the appropriate value that should be attached to the verbal answering category. For every normally-distributed

interval of that continuum, the overestimation is proportional to the underestimation: they neutralise each other. Thus, the middle of each interval is the appropriate value that should be ascribed to the verbal answering categories (van de Leur, 1995). The numerical proportion scores ascribed to the labels are reported in Table 5.1.

Table 5.1: Answering categories, the corresponding proportion interval and the ascribed numerical score

Label	Proportion interval	Numerical proportion score
(almost) none	0 - 12.5	6.25%
1 to 4	12.5 - 37.5	25%
2 to 4	37.5 - 62.5	50%
3 to 4	62.5 - 87.5	75%
(almost) all	87.5 - 100	93.75%

The proportion scores reported in the right-hand column of Table 5.1 are ascribed to the answering categories and used in this study by recoding the verbal answering categories of the original item.

An important difference with the original VAS is that the proportions read of each genre category should sum up to 106.25 percent.[33] Thus the proportions of the three genre categories for each respondent were summarised. Table 5.2 reports the frequency distribution of the scores.

Table 5.2: Frequency scores of respondents on the total sum of the constant sum task

Total sum	Number of respondents
81.25	1
100	3
106.25	**29**
125	11
143.75	1
150	2

Though the majority of the respondents completed the task successfully, a small

[33] For example, if a consumer only reads literature, s/he will indicate that (almost) none of the books read belong to the categories of romance and mystery novels. Consequently, the total sum will be 6.25% + 6.25% + 93.75% = 106.25%.

number failed to recognise that the task was a constant sum task. The deviations illustrate that the task is not as simple and straightforward as was initially assumed. All in all, however, the scores remain indicative of the weight respondents attach to each genre category and no major problems with the reliability of the scores are expected.

To construct a measure of genre preferences, the proportion scores were multiplied with the scores of the reading-intensity scale, resulting in the following statistics: the mean for the reading of literature was 220.83 with a standard deviation of 180.69; the mean and standard deviation for romance novels were 131.21 and 139.60, respectively; and mystery novels had a mean of 187.99 and a standard deviation of 180.73.

Orientation towards newly-published books. Orientation towards newly-published books was measured on a five-point single-item Likert scale. The item selected had the highest item-total correlation (.68) in the previous study (see Appendix 4.2). The item was about the perceived importance of remaining up-to-date on available titles. The item mean for the entire sample was 2.77 with a standard deviation of 1.08. The scores ranged from 1 to 5, which completely covered all of the possible scores ('1' was 'not important at all'; '5' was 'very important').

5.2.2.2 Familiarity with information gathering

Again, two categories of information gathering were distinguished: non-marketeer-dominated interpersonal communication (NMDIC), and marketeer-dominated impersonal communication (MDIC). For NMDIC and MDIC, domain product-specific multi-items were used to assess the frequency of information gathering.

Non-marketeer-dominated interpersonal communication

In line with Chapter Four, a further distinction was made between opinion leadership, opinion seeking, and interpersonal communication.

Opinion leadership. Opinion leadership was operationalised with a single-item, five-point scale that had an item-total correlation of .78 in the previous study (see Appendix 4.2). The item measured the frequency with which respondents were asked which fiction titles were worth reading. Scores ranged from '1' '(almost) never' to '5' 'very often' (M=2.02; s.d.=1.18).

Opinion seeking. Opinion seeking was measured by requesting the frequency with which the respondents asked others to recommend fiction titles. The item-total correlation of this item was .71. Though Item Three in the original scale had an item-total correlation of .72, it was decided that the face-validity of this item

was higher. Scores ranged from '1' '(almost) never' to '5' 'very often', covering the entire range of possible scores (M=2.17; s.d.=1.21).

Interpersonal communication. Respondents had to indicate on a seven-point scale the frequency with which they talked with others about books. The item-total correlation of this item on the previously used three-item scale was .68, whereas the highest item-total correlation was .73. The face validity of the operationalisation used here was highest and, thus, this item was chosen. Scale categories ranged from '1' 'one or more times a week' to '7' 'less often than once in 4 to 6 months' (reverse coded). The interpersonal sources item had a mean of 4.75 and a standard deviation of 1.96.

Marketeer-dominated impersonal communication

Respondents rated the frequency with which they read about books in newspapers and/or magazines, visited the bookstore, and visited the library on a seven-point scale. Scale labels ranged from '1' 'one or more times a week' to '7' 'less often than once in 4 to 6 months' (reverse coded). As the first study had shown retail browsing to be related to retail visiting (r= .61), the former was, for now, omitted from the questionnaire.

Mass-media usage. Mass-media usage was measured by two seven-point items. The first item pertained to reading about fiction titles in newspapers and/or magazines (M=4.23; s.d.=2.40). The second item asked how often the respondent watched book programs on television (M=2.04; s.d.=1.74). An explicit distinction was made between using print sources and watching television since the orientation towards print and non-print media might differ between age groups (Knulst et al., 1988). Labels ranged from '1' 'one or more times a week' to '7' 'less often than once in 4 to 6 months' (reverse coded).

Distribution-channel visiting. In order to ascertain the use of channels, the frequencies of bookstore and public library visiting were asked for separately ('How often do you visit a bookstore/a library for books (M=4.44 respectively 3.56; s.d.=1.93 respectively 2.54; labels ranging from '1' 'one or more times a week' to '7' 'less often than once in 4 to 6 months' (reverse coded)).

5.2.2.3 Involvement

Involvement was operationalised as 'How important is the activity of reading fiction titles to you personally?' In the previous study, its item-total correlation had been .65 (see Appendix 4.2). Though Item One in the original scale had an item-total correlation of .68, it was decided that the face validity of this item was higher. For exploratory purposes, the use of a single-item was considered acceptable. The mean for the entire sample was 3.96 with a standard deviation of

1.01 on a five-point scale (median was 4; '1' was 'not important at all', '5' was 'very important'). The distribution of scores showed moderate to high levels of involvement.

5.2.2.4 Expertise: Semantic knowledge

Expertise was examined with seven open-ended questions. In Chapter Three, it was argued that measuring semantic knowledge about works of fiction by means of tapping attribute knowledge or by administering recognition tests is problematic, due to the enormous and rapidly-changing book supply, and the unique nature of each work of fiction. Expertise measures were selected, partly based on information obtained in pretesting the interview procedure. On the one hand, knowledge of the names of authors, the publishing houses, and the prizes/awards is semantic knowledge that is helpful in choosing a title. On the other hand, names of bookstores, book critics, newspapers/magazines with a book section, and television programs refer to impersonal sources of information where information (about books) can be obtained. A pretest revealed that respondents perceived these sources as relevant to making choices.[34]

Recall of the names of authors was considered appropriate: when people have read a book they liked, or when a title is discussed, the name of the author serves as an important (memory) cue (Leemans, 1994). Moreover, in bookstores and public libraries, books are alphabetically ordered by name of author. Respondents were asked to name Dutch or foreign authors of fiction. Additionally, they had to indicate whether they had ever read books by these authors. The existence of the authors named was checked by means of the 'Brinkman's cumulative catalogus van boeken' (Van der Lek, 1996). If a name could not be retrieved from this source, it was assumed to be non-existent and was removed from the list. Additionally, respondents were also asked to name publishing houses, literary awards and prizes, bookstores in the city where they lived, critics, newspapers and magazines with sections on books, and television programs about books. Answers were checked by means of different sources on the Internet, among them the Stichting Speurwerk Internet site. If an item could not be found, it was not counted. The number of items recalled constituted the values of each of the seven expertise variables. The descriptives of the expertise measures are reported in Table 5.3.

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[34] Names of genres were not inquired about since a pretest revealed that recalling genres resulted in very idiosyncratic genre labels that were very hard to verify and classify. However, these practical and methodological considerations do not imply that knowledge of genres is not important as part of expertise.

5.2.2.5 Consumer knowledge: Self-assessed expertise

For exploratory purposes, an additional task was assigned, involving assessment of self-estimated expertise (Brucks, 1985). Respondents rated on a five-point scale how knowledgeable ('1' was 'poor' to '5' was 'very good') they were with regard to fiction titles (M=2.85; s.d.=.97). The scores on this measure were related to the expertise measures.

5.2.2.6 Familiarity: A protocol analysis

Additionally, verbal protocol data were collected by conducting open interviews. These were conducted without explicitly steering consumer response towards specific sources of information. This procedure was performed to allow an examination of whether the responses fell into the categories of familiarity indices identified earlier. If they did, this would lead to additional support to the idea that these categories were comprehensive.

The focus was on statements about the use of information sources; the wish was to determine what sources were used to select a specific fiction title. Since the use of sources may vary over time and specific titles, respondents were asked to motivate their choice for the most recent fiction title they had read, the fiction title they were currently reading, the fiction title they would like to read by an author they had read previously, and the fiction title they would like to read by an author they had never read. The occurrence of a source mentioned in a protocol was coded as '0' (no occurrence) or '1' (occurrence). Since not all respondents could mention a title they wanted to read in the near future, the number of protocols obtained from each respondent ranged from one to an upper limit of four.

The coding scheme for the protocols (see Appendix 5.2), consisted of ten individual codes (A1 to A10), under seven headings: own (previous) consumption experiences (A1 thru A4), mass-media sources (A5), interpersonal communication sources (A6), retail sources (A7), educational sources (A8), information on the cover (A9), and non-classifiable (A10).

Selecting a book on the basis of a specific source of information does not always imply that the existence of the fiction title in question is known from that same source. Additional codes were developed (see Appendix 5.2) under the same headings. Protocols were also analysed according to the source from which any of the four fiction titles was known.

A pilot was conducted to test and revise the codes. The coding scheme was applied by first segmenting the protocols into short phrases and then coding each individual phrase (Bettman and Park, 1980) in the context of the total protocol. The researcher coded the protocols obtained from the 48 respondents. An obvious disadvantage to this procedure is that no interjudge reliability can be determined. Given the explorative character of this study, this was not regarded as a problem.

5.2.2.7 Sociodemographics

Gender, age, and level of education were the sociodemographics used to describe the sample in section 5.2.1.

In Table 5.3, the variables in this study are summarised and the descriptive statistics are reported.

A brief examination of Table 5.3 reveals that the sample consisted of frequent readers of fiction. Familiarity with the reading of literature was highest, followed by mystery novels, and romance novels. Reading intensity and the reading of literature had a normal distribution ($p \geq .05$), whereas the other variables had a non-normal distribution ($p < .05$).

With respect to NMDIC, familiarity with opinion leadership and opinion seeking remained below the scale mean, whereas interpersonal communication exceeded the scale middle. The positively-skewed distribution of opinion leadership and opinion seeking, and the negatively-skewed distribution of interpersonal communication are expressed by the Kolmogorov-Smirnov tests of normal distribution that were significant at a level of alpha is one percent.

With respect to MDIC, familiarity with newspapers and magazine use, and familiarity with retail visiting lied above the scale middle, whereas library visiting scored about average. Only retail visiting was normally-distributed ($p > .05$).

On average, the involvement with reading fiction was high, resulting in a negative and non-normal distribution of scores ($p < .05$).

Five out of nine variables measuring expertise had a normal distribution ($p < .05$). Names of authors recalled, and names of authors read had a high mean score, in contrast to the other expertise measures. The expertise measures with the best psychometric properties were selected. The Table reveals that there were measures of expertise that appear to have good measures of dispersion.

It is thought that the small sample size, the use of single items, the sampling procedure, and in particular our selection criterion of 'having read at least one fiction title in the previous twelve months' are responsible for the skewed nature of most of the familiarity measures. However, this is not too problematic, for the following reasons. Analyses of the familiarity measures are limited to (inter)correlational analyses. The familiarity measures were also used to explore their correlations with expertise. Although a great deal of the mathematical work on correlations is based on the normality assumption, one need not assume that the distributions of the variables are normal when interpreting the correlation coefficients (Ferguson and Takane, 1989). From this perspective, the dispersion of the familiarity measures is sufficient. In the following section, the sampling procedure is discussed.

Table 5.3: Descriptive statistics for the familiarity and expertise constructs

Construct	# of items	M (s.d.)	Scale range	Alpha	K-S z	p	N
FAMILIARITY: Consumption							
Reading intensity	3	4.76 (.18)	1-6	.85	1.35	p=.05	48
The reading of literature	1	220.83 (180.69)	-	-	1.12	p>.05	47
The reading of romance novels	1	131.21 (139.60)	-	-	1.78	p<.05	47
The reading of mystery novels	1	187.99 (180.73)	-	-	1.52	p<.05	47
Orientation towards newly-published books	1	2.77 (1.08)	1-5	-	1.53	p<.05	48
FAMILIARITY: NMDIC							
Opinion leadership	1	2.02 (1.18)	1-5	-	1.70	p<.05	48
Opinion seeking	1	2.17 (1.21)	1-5	-	1.68	p<.05	48
Interpersonal communication	1	4.75 (1.96)	1-7	-	1.68	p<.05	48
FAMILIARITY: MDIC							
Mass-media usage: newspapers/magazines	1	4.23 (2.40)	1-7	-	1.16	p<.05	48
Mass-media usage: television	1	2.04 (1.74)	1-7	-	2.68	p<.05	48
Retail visiting	1	4.44 (1.93)	1-7	-	1.00	p>.05	48
Library visiting	1	3.56 (2.54)	1-7	-	1.95	p<.05	48
CONSUMER CHARACTERISTIC							
Involvement	1	3.96 (1.01)	1-5	-	1.99	p<.05	48
EXPERTISE: Semantic knowledge							
Names of authors	1	15.29 (10.87)	-	-	.92	p>.05	48
Names of authors read	1	13.21 (10.29)	-	-	1.28	p>.05	48
Publishing houses	1	3.15 (3.22)	-	-	1.28	p>.05	48
Prizes/awards	1	1.88 (1.71)	-	-	1.36	p=.05	48
Bookstores	1	3.79 (1.58)	-	-	1.37	p<.05	48
Book critics	1	.62 (1.31)	-	-	3.06	p<.05	47
Newspapers/magazines	1	2.17 (1.69)	-	-	1.15	p>.05	48
Television Programs	1	.63 (.84)	-	-	2.17	p<.05	48
Self-assessed expertise	1	2.85 (.97)	1-5	-	1.71	p<.05	48

M=mean; s.d.=standard deviation; Alpha=Cronbach's alpha; K-S z=Kolmogorov-Smirnov z-statistic; p=p-value; N=sample size

5.2.3 DESIGN AND PROCEDURE

Appointments for interview sessions were made with respondents in the local library, bookstore, and book club outlet. The interviews were held at the respondents' homes. During the interviews, the respondents were seated with their backs to their book shelves. This was to prevent them from consulting their bookcases during the recall tasks.

The interview was guided by a semi-structured questionnaire. It contained open-end and closed questions about familiarity and expertise. The order in which the data were collected, was as follows: self-reported familiarity with consumption behaviour, involvement measure, self-assessed expertise, the protocol measures, expertise measures, familiarity with information-gathering behaviour and sociodemographics. After the interview, subjects were given a voucher for a free book and were thanked for participating.

During the verbal protocol, respondents were asked to recall the name of the fiction title they had read most recently. Then they were requested to motivate their choice for this title in general terms. The intervention of the researcher was minimal in order to avoid creating a bias towards specific sources of information. Subjects were encouraged to think aloud and their comments were written down by the researcher. If no information source was mentioned, the respondents were urged to continue reflecting. If reflecting and paraphrasing did not lead to the respondent mentioning a source, the researcher continued with the interview. This procedure was also followed for the fiction title respondents were currently reading, the fiction title they would like to read of an author they had previously read, and the title they would like to read of an author whose work they had never read.

5.3 RESULTS

First, the comprehensive nature of the familiarity measures is checked. Subsequently, the psychometric properties of the expertise measures are discussed. Finally, the relationship between the familiarity and the expertise measures that have the best psychometric properties will be discussed.

5.3.1 FAMILIARITY: A PROTOCOL ANALYSIS

Consumption behaviour, non-marketeer-dominated interpersonal communication (NMDIC), and marketeer-dominated impersonal communication (MDIC) are at the basis of the protocol coding scheme used in this study. Two types of codes were used. On the one hand, the protocols were analysed and coded according to whether information obtained from a specific source was guiding the decision to select a specific fiction title. On the other hand, the protocols were coded according to the source from which the title was known. Table 5.4 shows the

number and percentage of respondents who mentioned at least one specific source of information that had influenced their desire to read (any of the four) fiction titles.

Table 5.4: The number and percentage of respondents that mentioned at least once a specific source of information underlying the motive to read (any of the four) fiction titles.

Code	Frequency of occurrence (N=48)	Code description
A1	8 (16.7%)	own (previous) reading experiences
A2	33 (68.8%)	(generalisations of) previously read fiction titles by one and the same author
A3	1 (2.1%)	(generalisations of) previously read fiction titles about one and the same theme
A4	0 (0%)	(generalisations of) previously read fiction titles from one and the same genre
A5	11 (22.9%)	information obtained from mass-media sources
A6	13 (27.1%)	information obtained from word-of-mouth, recommendations (or imitations) by others
A7	1 (2.1%)	information obtained from (previous) choice-process(es) or ongoing searches in retail outlets or public library
A8	4 (8.3%)	information obtained from course, class, or teaching environment
A9	13 (27.1%)	information drawn from the cover of the book
A10	26 (54.2%)	unknown/unmentioned/unclear

It can be derived from inspection of the individual codes that some of the sources appeared rather infrequently. The most frequently reported were the motives to read a specific fiction title based on (generalisations of) reading experiences with other books by an author (33 out of 48 respondents mentioned this source at least once). Information obtained from the mass media, word-of-mouth, and the book's cover (in a choice environment) occupied a middle position. Twenty-six respondents failed at least once in mentioning or recalling the source of information: it could not be retrieved from the protocols. Otherwise, the sources of information could be categorised successfully along the dimensions of familiarity.

Selecting a book on the basis of a specific source of information does not always imply that the existence of the fiction title in question is known from that same source. Table 5.5 provides the number of respondents who specified at least once that any of the four fiction titles was known from that specific source.

Table 5.5: The number and percentage of respondents that mentioned at least once that any of the four fiction title(s) was known from that specific source

Code	Frequency of occurrence (N=48)	Code description
KT1	10 (20.8%)	known from fiction titles previously read
KT2	26 (54.2%)	known from mass-media sources
KT3	19 (39.6%)	known from word-of-mouth, recommendations (or imitations) by others
KT4	35 (72.9%)	known from (previous) choice process(es) or ongoing searches in retail outlets or public library
KT5	9 (18.8%)	known from course, class, or teaching environment
KT6	3 (6.3%)	known from another source
KT7	3 (6.3%)	unknown/unmentioned

The existence of a fiction title was most frequently known from (previous) choice-processes or ongoing searches in retail settings or the public library (N=35). Mass-media and interpersonal communication sources were mentioned most often after the retail setting (N=26 and N=19, respectively). Only three respondents mentioned at least once a source that could not be classified: the familiarity measures taken were rather comprehensive.

Generalisations of previously read titles by one and the same author appeared to be the most important source in the process of choice (N=33); (previous) choice processes and ongoing searches were the most important sources from which the fiction title was known (N=35). This finding suggests that decision-making very often takes place in the library or retail setting where consumers search for titles by authors whose work they have already read. The name of the author appears to be a major information cue and an important component of expertise used in making decisions.

5.3.2 IDENTIFYING THE EXPERTISE MEASURES WITH THE BEST PSYCHOMETRIC PROPERTIES

The scale values and the measures of dispersion of each of the expertise measures were examined. The purpose was to pick the best operationalisations of expertise in terms of their psychometric properties. Since variability is the most basic concept to psychological measurement, the expertise measures were selected that discriminated best between consumers with respect to their expertise. Thus, statistical indices of variability were analysed to determine the extent to which the expertise measures allowed for individual differences. Table 5.6 shows the univariate statistics for the expertise measures.

Table 5.6: The measures of dispersion for the expertise measures

Construct (number of items)	N	Range (min-max)	Mean	S.d.	Median	Skewness
Names of authors (1)	48	2-45	15.29	10.87	13.00	.94
Names of authors read (1)	48	1-45	13.21	10.29	9.00	1.05
Names of publishing houses (1)	48	0-13	3.15	3.22	2.00	1.31
Names of prizes/awards (1)	48	0-7	1.88	1.71	1.50	1.03
Names of bookstores (1)	48	1-10	3.79	1.58	4.00	1.33
Names of book critics (1)	48	0-5	.62	1.31	0.00	2.21
Names of newspapers/magazines (1)	48	0-8	2.17	1.69	3.00	.83
Names of television programs (1)	48	0-3	.63	.84	0.00	1.49

Table 5.6 reveals that the average number of author's names that were recalled, was 15, which is substantial. The standard deviation of 10.87 indicated sufficient variability. On average, respondents had read books by 13 of these authors (s.d.=10.29). The correlation between both measures was .97 ($p<.01$). It appears that when recalling names of authors, respondents came up with authors they did read, probably as a result of the vividness of these names in memory. Their prior experiences with these authors or the mental restructuring of the content of their bookshelves was often mentioned as the respondent's recall strategy. As such, the aided recall task in which consumers were asked to recall authors whose books they had read, will probably be less straining than unaided recall in which the consumers may reproduce the name of any author. As a consequence of the extremely high correlation, subsequent analyses have been restricted to the

variable 'number of mentioned authors that were read'.[35] Publishing houses had sufficient range (0-13) with a mean of about 3 and a standard deviation of 3.22. The mean number of prizes recalled was about 2 (s.d.=1.71). On average, about four bookstores were recalled; the total range was 1 to 10. Names of book critics and television programs scored lowest with nearly one item as the mean. On average, about two newspapers/magazines with a book section were recalled (s.d.=1.69).

All expertise measures were positively skewed, indicating that a large majority named few items, whereas a small number of respondents recalled more items than the majority. Because of the positive skewness, the median is a better indicator of the central tendency than the mean (Hays, 1988). From this perspective, the recall of prizes, book reviewers, and television programs had unfavourable psychometric properties (the median is 1.50, 0, and 0, respectively). The three measures also had non-normal distributions as the Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistics reported in Table 5.3 illustrate ($p<.05$). Recalling names of bookstores had reasonable measures of dispersion, although the distribution was non-normal (Kolmogorov-Smirnov statistic=1.37; $p<.05$).

If variability is taken as a criterion for psychometric measurement, recalling authors is the best expertise measure. It has a large range of values and sufficient variability, which is expressed by the high standard deviation. Publishing houses and newspapers/magazines with a book section follow on the basis of their measures of dispersion, as well as their normal distribution of scores, suggesting dispersion in all regions of the distribution of scores.

To examine whether the expertise measures had sufficient dispersion in the lower and the higher regions of the distribution of scores, percentiles were computed for each of the indicators. Table 5.7 reports the 25th, the 50th, and the 75th percentiles scores. These scores support the conclusion that recalling prizes, book reviewers, and television programs had undesirable psychometric properties, with little or no dispersion in the lower or the higher regions of the distribution of scores.

The choice was made to proceed with those measures that discriminate between consumers with respect to their expertise. Though it may seem that this is circular reasoning if we agree with this premise, it is not. It is assumed that the total score on all expertise measures reflects the person's true expertise. Given this is the case, the score on each measure will be related to the total score in

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[35] Given the extremely high correlation between the number of authors' names recalled and the number of authors' names recalled of which a book has been read, the decision was made in the final study to measure expertise by asking the respondents to recall the names of authors of which they had read books in the past. Restricting the analyses to the variable 'number of mentioned authors that were read' increases the comparability of the results reported in this chapter with those reported in Chapter Six.

Table 5.7: Percentile scores for the expertise measures

Expertise measure	percentiles		
	25	50	75
Names of authors read	6.25	13.00	22.75
Publishing houses	1.00	2.00	4.00
Prizes/awards	1.00	1.50	3.00
Bookstores	3.00	4.00	4.75
Book reviewers	0	0	0
Newspapers/magazines	1.00	2.00	3.00
Television Programs	0	0	0

order to determine which measures are nondiscriminating (Churchill, 1995). A composite expertise score was computed by converting raw scores on each expertise measure into z-scores and by computing the sum of the standardised expertise variables. Subsequently, the subjects were placed into arbitrarily defined groups. It was assumed that subjects scoring in the top 25 percent of the total would possess the greatest expertise, whereas the lowest 25 percent would have the least amount of expertise. The statistical difference in mean scores for each measure was tested for the lowest and the highest percentiles group. Expertise measures that did not pass this test, were to be viewed as lacking in discriminating power and needed to be eliminated from the expertise measurement instrument (Churchill, 1995).

Some of the expertise measures did not meet the requirements for applying t-tests. There were also large differences in standard deviations between the two groups. Therefore, the Wald-Wolfowitz runs test was used. A large number of runs indicates that there is a great deal of support of H_0 and, thus, that the means do not differ from each other. The results of these tests are reported in Table 5.8.

Table 5.8 indicates that recalling prizes, bookstores, book reviewers, and television programs did not discriminate between the low and the high expertise group ($p>.05$). Recalling authors, publishing houses, and newspapers were discriminating measures, since the difference in standardised means was maximally negative, and significant at the one percent level. Moreover, these three indicators were the only ones that passed the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test (see Table 5.3). Taking the low number of runs and the large Wolfowitz Z statistic as criteria, the differences in means for the names of authors and publishing houses are the most prominent.

Table 5.8 suggests that high scores on the number of authors recalled whose work was read, co-occur with high scores on recalling publishing houses and newspapers/magazines with a book section. In order to verify this, correlations were computed between all of the expertise measures (cf. Table 5.9). Since multiple comparisons were made on the same data set, there should be concern about the possibility of a type I error in the entire set of comparisons, the

Table 5.8: Differences in mean expertise scores between the group with the lowest 25% and the group with the top 25% of total expertise scores

Expertise measure	Means (s.d.)					
	25th percentile (N=10)	75th percentile (N=11)	Mean difference	(max) # of runs	Wald-Wolfowitz Z	exact sig. (1-tailed)
Names of authors read	-.866 (.210)	1.332 (.876)	-2.198	2[a]	-4.029	.000
Names of publishing houses	-.885 (.210)	1.340 (1.006)	-2.225	2[a]	-4.029	.000
Names of prizes	-.863 (.302)	.924 (1.265)	-1.787	8[b]	-1.336	.092
Names of bookstores	-.942 (.520)	.820 (1.277)	-1.762	8[b]	-1.336	.092
Names of book reviewers	-.394 (.241)	1.193 (1.399)	-1.587	10[b]	-.438	.335
Names of newspapers/ magazines	-1.162 (.249)	.922 (1.124)	-2.084	4[b]	-3.131	.001
Names of television programs	-.624 (.377)	.878 (1.434)	-1.502	10[b]	-.438	.335

a. exact number of runs
b. maximum possible numbers of runs

familywise error rate (Hays, 1988). The Bonferroni inequality provides an upper bound for the probability that given a particular alpha of the individual tests one or more tests of the multiple comparisons turn out to be significant while in reality it is not (familywise error rate). In order to minimise familywise error,[36] an alpha of one percent was taken throughout this Chapter.

The correlations between authors whose work was read, publishing houses, and prizes ranged from 0.46 to 0.65 (see Table 5.9). The correlations between bookstores, book reviewers, and television programs were much lower, ranging from 0.09 to 0.28. Recalling authors whose work was read correlated .65 with publishing houses ($p<.01$), and .51 with newspapers/magazines ($p<.01$). The

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[36] If one is dealing with K statistically independent tests, where the same alpha level is used for each test, than the relationship of the familywise rate (α_{FW}) to the error rate per test (α_{PC}) is: $\alpha_{FW} = 1 - (1 - \alpha_{PC})^K$. If 60 tests are performed, the familywise error rate will be 0.95 if $\alpha_{PC} = 0.05$. Hence the probability that at least one of the correlations is significant, while in fact it is not, is 95%. The familywise error rate drops to 0.45 if an alpha of 0.01 is taken for the individual tests.

Table 5.9: Kendall's tau-c correlations between the expertise measures (N=48)

	Authors read	Publishing houses	Prizes/ Awards	Book-stores	Book critics	News-paper/ maga-zines	T.V. programs
Authors read	1.000						
Publishing houses	.645**	1.000					
Prizes/ Awards	.458**	.474**	1.000				
Bookstores	.325**	.397**	.109	1.000			
Book critics	.261**	.241**	.095	.092	1.000		
Newspaper/ magazines	.514**	.448**	.345**	.412**	.129	1.000	
T.V. programs	.252*	.360**	.235	.192	.202	.280**	1.000

** correlations are significant at the 1% level (two-tailed)

latter correlated .45 with publishing houses ($p<.01$). Clearly, the measures that passed the Wolfowitz Z test in the previous paragraph, were also the most coherent: a high score on any of them implies a high score on the remaining two.

The Kendall tau-c correlations between the subjective and the objective expertise measures are reported in Table 5.10.

Table 5.10: Kendall's tau-c correlations between the subjective expertise measure and the objective expertise measures (N=48)

	Authors read	Publishing houses	Prizes/ Awards	Bookstores	Book critics	Newspaper/ magazines	T.V. programs
Self-assessed expertise	.388**	.305**	.333**	.187	.058	.263**	.066

** Correlation significant at 1% level (2-tailed)

The correlations between self-assessed expertise and number of authors read and recalled, publishing houses, and prizes were significant at the 1% level. Self-assessed expertise also correlated significantly with the number of newspapers/magazines recalled with a book section ($p<.01$). The correlations support the view that these types of information are highly relevant to decision-making. Names of authors, publishing houses, and prizes are of use in selecting books, whereas names of bookstores, book reviews, newspaper/magazines, and television refer to sources of information on books. Respondents apparently judged their expertise on the basis of knowledge of information that is useful in

making choices, and less on the basis of knowledge of where to obtain information about books, with the exception of newspapers/magazines with book sections.

In summary. In the previous sections the psychometric properties of the expertise measures were examined. Two types of indicators were distinguished as underlying expertise, namely consumer knowledge that is relevant in deciding which fiction title to choose, and information about the sources from which information can be obtained. A basic conclusion is that recalling the names of authors read, publishing houses, and newspapers/magazines with book sections have the best psychometric properties and the greatest discriminatory power between low and high expertise groups. Self-assessed expertise correlates with these measures of expertise in the sense that consumers appear to judge their expertise on the basis of their knowledge of these information items.

In the following, the number of authors read and recalled, the number of publishing houses, and the number of newspapers/magazines recalled are used to explore the relationships between familiarity and expertise.

5.3.3 A FIRST EXPLORATION OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FAMILIARITY AND EXPERTISE

Some comments are provided below on the correlations between each familiarity measure and each of the three expertise measures reported in Table 5.11.

The Table shows that there was no correlation between frequency of consumption and the expertise measures. Consumption 'sec' does not (automatically) relate to expertise. The correlations between the reading of literature and the expertise measures were positive and significant at a level of alpha is one percent: the higher the familiarity with the reading of literature, the more expertise. The correlations between the reading of romance novels and the expertise measures were negative and significant for recall of authors and for publishing houses ($p<.01$): the more familiarity there is with reading romance novels, the fewer names of authors and publishing houses are recalled. Recalling newspapers/magazines with a book section did not correlate significantly with reading romance novels at a level of alpha is one percent. The sign of the correlation, though, was negative. The reading of mystery novels had a negative and significant correlation only with recalling newspapers/magazines with a book section ($p<.01$). The sign of the correlations with the other two expertise measures was negative. The correlation between orientation towards newly-published books and expertise was significant only for authors read ($p<.01$). For the other two expertise measures, the sign of the correlation with orientation towards newly-published books was positive.

Opinion leadership and opinion seeking did not correlate significantly with the expertise measures ($p>.01$), but significant correlations were found between interpersonal communication and the three expertise measures: the correlations

Table 5.11: Kendall's tau-c correlations between the familiarity measures, the expertise measures, and involvement (N=48)

Involvement		Authors read	Publishing houses	Newspapers/ magazines
	FAMILIARITY: Consumption			
.290	Reading intensity	.048	-.045	-.030
.244**	The reading of literature	.521**	.408**	.470**
.165	The reading of romance novels	-.291**	-.329**	-.212
.195	The reading of mystery novels	-.223	-.219	-.271**
.144	Orientation towards newly-published books	.362**	.263	.229
	FAMILIARITY: NMDIC			
.140	Opinion leadership	.275	.146	.234
.049	Opinion seeking	.250	.087	.194
.438**	Interpersonal communication	.404**	.348**	.363**
	FAMILIARITY: MDIC			
.366**	Mass-media usage	.532**	.502**	.508**
-.016	Television program viewing	.176	.153	.095
.388**	Retail visiting	.494**	.373**	.330**
.202	Library visiting	.056	-.024	-.219
	CONSUMER CHARACTERISTIC			
1.000	Involvement	.263	.209	.143

** Correlation is significant at 1% level (2-tailed)

were all positive and significant at a level of alpha is one percent.

Finally, the correlations between mass-media usage and retail visiting, on the one hand, and the expertise measures, on the other, were significant at the one-percent level and positive. The correlations between watching television programs and library visiting, on the one hand, and the expertise measures, on the other, were very low.

The familiarity measures that correlated significantly with the expertise measures seem to typify highly-involved readers of fiction: the reading of literature, interpersonal communication, mass-media usage, and retail visiting (see Chapter Four). This is shown by the pattern of correlations between involvement and the familiarity measures, as reported in the column on the left of Table 5.11. Involvement correlated significantly ($p<.01$) with the reading of literature, interpersonal communication, and MDIC (except for watching television programs). These familiarity indices correlated significantly with all

expertise measures ($p<.01$). Thus far, it appears that high levels of involvement co-occur with high levels of reading literature, interpersonal communication, mass-media usage, and retail visiting, being conditions for expertise to develop. Consumers who are highly involved with reading (literary) fiction, talk about fiction, and engage in mass-media usage and retail visiting, have the highest expertise. However, orientation towards newly-published books and opinion leadership did not correlate with involvement ($p>.01$).

5.4 SUMMARY AND CONCLUSION

The objectives in this chapter were to check the comprehensiveness of the typology of familiarity by conducting a protocol-analysis, to examine the psychometric properties of the expertise measures, and to select the indicators of expertise that had the best psychometric properties, as well as the most discriminatory capacity between different expertise groups. Finally, a first exploration was undertaken of the relationship between familiarity and expertise.

An open interview technique was used to examine the comprehensive nature of the categorisation of the familiarity indices used in this thesis. Support was found for the subdivision into consumption, MDIC, and NMDIC. The protocol data revealed that for most respondents generalisations of previous reading experiences with books by the same author were the source of information used in the decision to read a specific title. Consequently, the name of the author was an important information cue. The retail outlet or public library was mentioned most often as the place in which a familiar fiction title was first encountered. These findings suggest that consumers often decide 'on the spot' by searching for books by authors whose work is familiar.

There was a large difference between the number of respondents that had become aware of a title in the retail setting (Table 5.5) and the number of respondents that had selected titles on the basis of information obtained in the book store (Table 5.4). Note, however, that a distinction was made in Table 5.4 between information obtained in a retail outlet and information drawn from the book's cover: if information on the cover was read in the bookstore, this was coded as 'information drawn from the book's cover' in Table 5.4.

Expertise measures were examined for their psychometric properties. Two types of indicators were distinguished: knowledge that is useful in making choices and knowledge on where to obtain (information about) fiction titles. The recall of authors'names, publishing houses, and newspapers/magazines with book sections had the best psychometric properties. A reliable measurement instrument of expertise on fiction should contain these three measures of expertise. If the researcher wants to reduce task effort, however, recalling authors as a single measure is the best; its measure of dispersion, mean, and face validity exceeded those of the other two measures. Recall of authors also had a normal distribution and the strongest discriminating power between the groups

with little and much expertise. Moreover, the protocol data supported the notion that the name of an author is an important information cue and a selection criterion in the choice-process.

The relationships between familiarity and recalling the names of authors, names of publishing houses, and newspapers/magazines as indicators of expertise were explored. The three expertise measures correlated to a high degree and positively with the reading of literature, interpersonal communication, mass-media usage, and retail visiting. In Chapter Four, it was found that these behaviours clustered together under the condition of greater involvement. The correlations between involvement and these familiarity measures, on the one hand, and these indices of familiarity and expertise, on the other, suggest that high levels of involvement go together with high levels of familiarity with literary fiction and, consequently, with high levels of expertise; familiarity and expertise are contingent upon concrete consumer behaviour and the mutual relationship is strong for those behaviours that are typical of highly readers of fiction.

No substantial correlations were found between reading intensity, opinion seeking, opinion leadership, and library visiting, on the one hand, and expertise on the other. The zero correlation between reading intensity and number of authors recalled indicated that, in line with expectations, consumption is a necessary but insufficient condition for expertise to develop. Thus far, the reading of literature, interpersonal communication, and MDIC have proven to be the best predictors of expertise. A plausible explanation for the negative correlations between the reading of romances and mystery novels, on the one hand, and expertise, on the other hand, is that readers of these genres seldom use additional external sources to inform themselves about fiction titles, whereas readers of literature do. Note that involvement is positively correlated with the reading of literature (Kendall's Tau-c=.24; $p<.01$), but not with the reading of romance novels (Kendall's Tau-c=.17; $p>.05$) and the reading of mystery novels (Kendall's Tau-c=.20; $p>.05$).

Library visiting did not correlate strongly with any of the other behaviours, nor did it correlate with involvement. This suggests that both low and high involvement groups visit the library. However, since retail visiting is less likely for the lowly-involved group, it is inferred that the highly-involved group combines retail visiting with library-visiting behaviour. Readers of romance and mystery novels who have a low degree of involvement obtain their books mainly from the library.

In summary, what is important in developing expertise is whether or not the consumer reads literature, talks about books, uses mass-media sources, and visits the bookstore to stay informed. This pattern of behaviour is most likely to occur when involvement is high. In marketeer-dominated sources and interpersonal communication, the names of authors and publishing houses are used to communicate about the fiction title in question. From this perspective, the explanation is feasible. The relationship between familiarity and expertise is

dealt with in more detail in the next chapter.

CHAPTER 6

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FAMILIARITY AND EXPERTISE

6.1 INTRODUCTION

In the previous chapter, a preliminary examination of the correlations between familiarity and the expertise measures made it clear that basically their relationship was linear for those behaviours which were most typical of respondents with a high degree of involvement. In this chapter, Propositions 4 and 5 are examined to determine whether the relationship differs if consumer motivation and ability are taken into account.

The following research objectives were defined:

1. To further determine the relationship between familiarity and expertise;
2. To examine the effect of motivation on the relationship between familiarity and expertise; and
3. To examine the effect of ability on the relationship between familiarity and expertise.

6.2 METHODOLOGY

6.2.1 RESPONDENTS

Data were collected during a three-week period in March 1998, using a quote sample, in which quotes were specified for gender and age. The resulting sample consisted of 217 inhabitants (100 male and 117 female) of Tilburg. Since the focus was on the expenditure of leisure time on reading by adults, there was an age cut-off at 18. All of the participants met the requirement of having read at least one fiction title in the previous twelve months. The average age of the respondents was 39.5. Fifty-eight percent of the respondents had a job and were well-educated: 45% had a professional (college) or graduate-level.

In Table 6.1, the characteristics of the respondents are compared to those in the TBO-select sample (who had also read at least one fiction title in the previous twelve months), as was done in Chapter Four. No differences were found in the characteristics gender, age, book club membership, and reading intensity ($p>.05$). However, the sample differed from the Dutch population in level of education ($\chi^2=29.06$ (6); $p<.01$): subjects with a higher level of

Table 6.1: Characteristics of the sample compared to TBO data

Characteristics of respondents	This study (N=218)	TBO select (N=2134)	Chi-Square (D.F.) Sign.
Gender:			
male	46%	37%	χ^2=3.47 (1); N.S.
female	54%	63%	
Education:			
primary education (LO)	1%	5%	χ^2=29.06 (6); p<.01
junior vocational training (LBO)	7%	14%	
junior general secondary education (MAVO)	11%	15%	
senior vocational training (MBO)	14%	23%	
senior general secondary /pre-university education (HAVO/VWO)	23%	12%	
vocational colleges (HBO)	29%	23%	
university (WO)	15%	8%	
Age:			
18 - 24	16%	11%	χ^2=3.76 (3); N.S.
25 -39	36%	43%	
40 - 59	36%	33%	
59+	12%	13%	
average			
Occupation:			
(part-time)full-time job	58%	61%	χ^2=24.77 (5); p<.01
(early) retired	9%	8%	
unemployed	2%	2%	
full-time homemaker	10%	20%	
student/pupil	14%	7%	
other	7%	2%	
Member of a public library:			
yes	67%	50%	χ^2=11.56 (1); p<.01
no	33%	50%	
Member of a book club:			
yes	23%	28%	χ^2=1.24 (1); N.S.
no	77%	72%	
Read literature in the previous twelve months:			
yes	79%	48%	χ^2=40.04 (1); p<.01
no	21%	52%	
Read romance novels in the previous twelve months:			
yes	72%	47%	χ^2=25.09 (1); p<.01
no	28%	53%	
Read mystery novels in the previous twelve months:			
yes	39%	59%	χ^2=16.54 (1); p<.01
no	61%	41%	

Table 6.1: Characteristics of the sample compared to TBO data

Characteristics of respondents	This study (N=218)	TBO select (N=2134)	Chi-Square (D.F.) Sign.
Reading Intensity:			
1 low	5%	5%	χ^2=7.30 (5); N.S.
2	7%	5%	
3	10%	8%	
4	15%	15%	
5	37%	29%	
6 high	26%	38%	

education were overrepresented in the sample used in this study, in particular the number of people with a pre-university education (23% as opposed to 12% in the TBO-select sample). Occupation also differed (χ^2=24.77 (5); p<.01). Respondents who were homemakers were underrepresented, whereas students were overrepresented. Significantly more respondents were members of a public library (χ^2=11.56 (1); p<.01) than in the TBO-select data. The sample also contained more respondents who had reported having read literary fiction as well as romance novels in the previous twelve months (χ^2=40.04 (1); p<.01 and χ^2=25.09 (1); p<.01, respectively). Respondents who stated they had read mystery novels in the previous twelve months, were underrepresented (χ^2=16.54 (1); p<.01); 61% of the respondents indicated they had not read mystery novels, as opposed to 41% in the TBO-sample. In the previous chapters, it could be seen that there were major differences in consumer behaviour, depending on the genre preferences. Consequently, the overrepresentation of readers of literary fiction and of romance novels may affect the results reported in this chapter. This issue is returned to in the final section.

6.2.2 MEASURES

In some respects, the operationalisations used here differ from those in Chapters Four and Five. To reduce task effort and to keep the length of the questionnaire within acceptable limits, a selection was made from the familiarity measures used in Chapter Four. Scales for opinion seeking, opinion leadership, and orientation towards newly-published books were constructed by selecting the three items with the highest item-total correlation from each scale (see Appendix 4.2) and by checking these items for face validity. In line with the study reported in Chapter Four, agreement was measured for some items on a five-point scale in which '1' was 'don't agree at all' and '5' was 'completely agree'. For other items, the frequency of a specific behaviour was asked for on a five-point scale, in which '1' was 'never' and '5' was 'very often'. The scale items are listed in Appendix 6.1. Each operationalisation is discussed individually below.

6.2.2.1 Familiarity with consumption

Again, a distinction was made between book reading, genre preferences, orientation towards newly-published books, and variety seeking as indicators of reading direction.

Book reading. Book reading was operationalised using the reading intensity scale. In the previous studies, one item in the scale twice exhibited a low item-total correlation. Instead of using this item, it was asked of the respondent how long ago s/he had finished reading a book. This resulted in a four-item scale with a Cronbach's alpha of .92. The mean was 4.62 and the standard deviation was 1.34 on a six-point scale.

Genre preferences. Respondents were asked whether they had read books in the categories literary fiction, romance novels, and mystery in the previous twelve months. In the previous study, not all of the questions that were based on the VAS received correct responses. Apparently, it was hard to see that the answers would have to add up to four out of four (constant-sum scale). Thus, the nature of the task was specified more clearly. Respondents had to distribute 100 points among the three types of fiction. The division of points would indicate the proportion in which they had read books out of each genre category in the previous twelve months. Moreover, they were instructed that the points would have to add up to one hundred. The percentage of points attributed to each genre category was multiplied with the scores on the reading-intensity scale. The three newly-constructed variables were taken as an indicator of reading preferences. The reading of literature had a mean of 216.09 with a standard deviation of 178.43. The mean of reading romance novels was 176.67 with a standard deviation of 172.30. Finally, the mean score on mystery novels was 67.00, with a standard deviation of 115.92. These scores reflect that readers of literary fiction and of romances were overrepresented in the sample and readers of mystery novels underrepresented.

Orientation towards newly-published books. This characteristic was measured using a three-item five-point scale. The items were selected with the highest item-total correlation on the scale used in Chapter Four (see Appendix 4.2). The item-total correlation of the three selected items ranged from .59 to .68. Scores were averaged. The mean was 2.80 with a standard deviation of .99. Cronbach's alpha was .74. Scores ranged from 1 to 5 and covered the entire range of possible scores.

Variety seeking. In the first study, variety seeking had no discriminating effects or explanatory power. To rule out the possibility that the operationalisations used were deficient, the decision was made to improve the measure of variety seeking. A new scale was developed that drew on the work of

Baumgartner and Steenkamp (1996). The authors had developed the Exploratory Buying Behaviour Tendencies scale (EBBT scale) which contains the Exploratory Acquisition of Products (EAP) component. This dimension reflects "...a consumer's tendency to seek sensory stimulation in product purchase through risky and innovative product choices and varied and changing purchase and consumption experiences". The EAP items were reformulated so that they applied to exploratory acquisition of fiction titles. To cover all of the aspects, variety seeking with regard to author, theme, and genre were equally and randomly distributed over the ten items. Scores on the ten-item scale were averaged and ranged from 1.10 to 4.63. The mean of the scale was 3.03 (s.d.=.68); Cronbach's alpha had a value of .86 which was quite satisfactorily.

6.2.2.2 Familiarity with information gathering

In line with Chapter Four and Five, a distinction was made between NMDIC and MDIC.

Non-marketeer-dominated interpersonal communication

Again, a distinction was made between opinion leadership, opinion seeking, and interpersonal communication.

Opinion leadership. In the first study, opinion leadership was operationalised by means of three items measuring the extent to which an individual served as a source of information and two items measuring the influence an individual was inclined to exert while engaging in interpersonal communication. This measure was adopted in the second study with two modifications being made. First, the item that inquired after the frequency with which other people asked for advice about newly-published books was changed by leaving out the words 'newly-published' to avoid confounding with the variable measuring orientation towards newly-published books. Second, an item was added that probed the frequency with which individuals noticed that their recommendations were being honored by someone else. The scores on the six five-point scale items were averaged to construct the opinion leadership scale. Scale ends were labelled '1' 'never' to '5' 'very often'. Cronbach's alpha was .91. Scores on the final scale ranged from 1 through 5 (M=2.68; s.d.=.93).

Opinion seeking. The opinion-seeking scale consisted of three five-point scaled items ('1' was 'never'; '5' was 'very often') whose item-total correlations in the first study ranged from .71 to .72. The scores covered the entire range of possible outcomes (M=2.41; s.d.=.99). The scale had a satisfactory Cronbach's alpha of .81.

Interpersonal communication. As was done in Chapter Five, respondents were asked to indicate on a single-item seven-point scale the frequency with which they talked in general with others about books. Scale categories ranged from '1' 'one or more times a week' to '7' 'less often than once every 4 to 6 months' (reverse coded). The interpersonal-sources item had a mean of 4.16 and a standard deviation of 2.04. The scores ranged from 1 to 7.

Marketeer-dominated impersonal communication

MDIC consisted of mass-media usage, retail-browsing, and distribution-channel visiting.

Mass-media usage. Respondents rated the frequency of mass-media search activities in general on a single-item seven-point scale. Possible outcomes ranged from '1' 'one or more times a week' to '7' 'less often than once every 4 to 6 months' (reverse coded). The mean was 4.61 and the standard deviation 2.26. In contrast to the previous study, mass-media use was measured with only one item. The viewing of television programs about books was not asked about, since the results in Chapter Five showed that the variable had almost no variance.

Retail browsing. It was asked of respondents how often they visited a bookstore without having the intention of buying a particular book (M=4.12; s.d.=2.05 on a seven-point scale; scores ranging from '1' 'one or more times a week' to '7' 'less often than once every 4 to 6 months' (reverse coded)). The item was re-introduced in this study and considered to be indicative of the extent to which respondents engaged in ongoing search.

Distribution-channel visiting. As in Chapter Five, bookstore and public library visiting were probed separately by means of two single-items (M=4.17, respectively 3.22; s.d.=1.88, respectively 2.50). Scores on the seven-point scales ranged from '1' 'one or more times a week' to '7' 'less often than once every 4 to 6 months' (reverse coded).

6.2.2.3 Expertise: Semantic knowledge

In Chapter Five, it was argued that the ability to recall the names of authors, publishing houses, and newspapers/magazines with a book section was a reliable and highly correlated measure of expertise. In order to reduce task effort, expertise was measured with one open-ended question, the names of authors read. This choice was based on the psychometric properties the variable appeared to have in the previous study. The recall task could be facilitated by asking the respondents to recall the names of authors of which they had read books in the past. Additionally, it was felt that this restriction would be indicative of the extent to which consumers were familiar with reading fiction. Thus, it was

decided to measure expertise by means of the question: 'What names of Dutch or foreign authors of fiction can you name of which you have read a fiction title in the past'. This approach minimised the possibility that authors would be recalled who were known from sources other than the respondents' own consumption. However, the effect of reading experiences as a memory cue was so strong (see Chapter Five) that this was not considered problematic. Authors named were checked and the number of items recalled constituted the values of the expertise variable. The mean number of authors recalled was 7.77 (s.d.=6.20). The respondents' scores ranged from 0 to 26.

6.2.2.4 Consumer characteristics

In Chapter Two, two moderator variables were introduced which were expected to affect the relationship between familiarity and expertise, namely motivation and ability.

Motivation

It was argued that both involvement and need for cognition were indicative of motivation leading to processing information more deeply and learning from consumer behaviour. The operationalisations of these two components are discussed successively.

Involvement. Due to the theoretical and empirical importance of the construct, it was decided that five items should be added to the four-item scale in the first study. The aim was to increase the face validity of the construct and to improve the initial Cronbach's Alpha of .79. The additional items measured the extent to which reading fiction was related to the self-concept of the consumer by assessing the centrality of reading fiction within the attitude structure. The mean of the nine-item scale was 3.41 with a standard deviation of .78 on a five-point scale. The reliability increased to .88, which is satisfactory. As in the previous two studies, the sample consisted of people who were moderately to highly involved with fiction.

Need for cognition. Need for cognition was measured by selecting eight items from the original eighteen-item need-for-cognition five-point scale developed by Cacciopo et al. (1984). The selection of items was based on the item-total correlations obtained in a study conducted by Hoeken (1995) in which the original eighteen-item scale was applied. The eight items with the highest item-total correlations (ranging from .54 to .63) were selected. The scale scores were averaged and ranged from 1.75 to 5 (M=3.65; s.d.=.62; Cronbach's alpha=.87).

The motivation variable was constructed by multiplying the scores on the involvement scale with those on the need for cognition scale. In our view,

involvement and need for cognition are non-compensatory. Since involvement is a key variable in depth-of-processing, high levels of need for cognition cannot compensate for low levels of involvement (see Figure 6.1): if involvement with fiction is low, the motivation to process information deeply will be low, despite high levels of need for cognition. However, if involvement is high and need for cognition is low, the motivation to process information deeply may be high. If involvement and need for cognition are both high, the latter variable can be expected to intensify the effect of involvement on the motivation to process information deeply. Since an interaction effect was expected between involvement and need for cognition, the product of the variables was taken to construct the motivation variable. The mean of this variable was 12.56, with a standard deviation of 3.92.

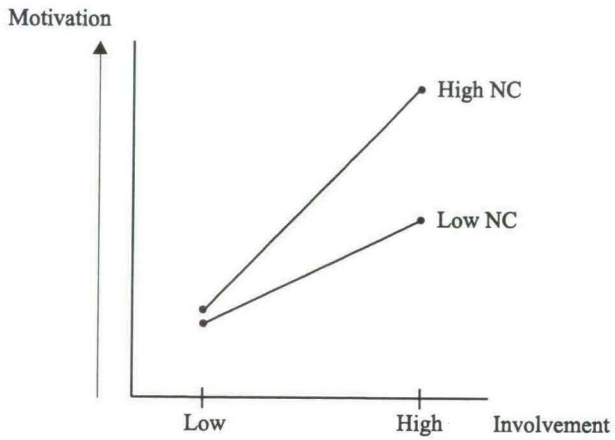

Figure 6.1: The assumed relationship between involvement and motivation to process information under conditions of low versus high need for cognition (NC)

Ability

Given that individuals want to benefit from consumption and information-gathering behaviour with regard to future choice, ability should refer to consumers' skill or proficiency in memorising (the usefulness of) information cues regarding fiction titles. It was assumed that level of education was indicative of the extent to which one is trained in processing information and in memorising information. Thus, the ability to process information was operationalised by asking for level of education. The variable had seven categories: primary education, junior vocational training, junior general secondary education, senior vocational training, senior general secondary education/pre-university education, vocational colleges, graduate

university/PhD-degree. The frequencies are reported in Table 6.1.

6.2.2.5 Sociodemographics

The independent variables gender and age were included in the questionnaire in order to determine the representativeness of the sample.

6.2.2.6 Summary

In Table 6.2, the variables are summarised and the descriptive statistics are reported.

Reading intensity, mass-media usage, and level of education had rather high means compared to the range of the scales. This may have affected the results and their generalisability. The negatively-skewed distribution of the scores on these items was confirmed by the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test of normal distribution which was significant at a level of alpha is one percent.

In fact, the majority of scales or items used in this study had a non-normal distribution (eleven out of sixteen). Mostly, this stemmed from an overrepresentation of respondents who engaged in certain consumer behaviour rather frequently. Since a selection was made from the population - those who had read at least one fiction title in the previous twelve months - there may be two reasons why normal distributions were not obtained. On the one hand, by setting the criteria the scores of consumers who did not qualify as readers were eliminated from consideration. On the other hand, the selection criteria used might have dispelled respondents who had read a fiction title in the previous twelve months but who did not read often, leaving us with more highly-involved readers of fiction. The latter were more likely to participate in the study, resulting in response bias. At this point, the central limit theorem can be argued (Hays, 1988). Regardless of the population distribution, if sample size N is large enough, the normal distribution is a good approximation of the sample distribution. Since the sample size here exceeded one hundred, it is safe to conclude that the sampling distribution of the means approached normal distributions.

If the variables with the same scale range are compared, it can be concluded that there was sufficient dispersion in the scores. The reliability of the scales used in this study was very good (.80 and higher), whereas orientation towards newly-published books had a lower but still sufficient reliability (Cronbach's alpha=.74). Scales were constructed by computing average scores on the items with usable responses. The number of cases for each scale that was lost due to missing answers was minimal with a maximum number of six respondents.

Table 6.2: Descriptive statistics for the familiarity and expertise constructs

Construct	# of items	M (s.d.)	Scale range	Alpha	K-S z	p	N
FAMILIARITY: Consumption							
Reading intensity	4	4.62 (1.34)	1-6	.92	2.69	p<.01	217
The reading of literature	1	216.09 (178.43)	-	-	1.65	p<.01	211
The reading of romance novels	1	176.67 (172.30)	-	-	2.22	p<.01	212
The reading of mystery novels	1	67.00 (115.92)	-	-	5.03	p<.01	212
Orientation towards newly-published books	3	2.80 (.99)	1-5	.74	1.41	p<.05	217
Variety seeking	10	3.03 (.68)	1-5	.86	1.14	p>.05	217
FAMILIARITY: NMDIC							
Opinion leadership	6	2.68 (.93)	1-5	.91	1.08	p>.05	216
Opinion seeking	3	2.41 (.99)	1-5	.81	1.72	p<.01	216
Interpersonal communication	1	4.16 (2.04)	1-7	-	2.39	p<.01	217
FAMILIARITY: MDIC							
Mass-media usage	1	4.61 (2.26)	1-7	-	2.95	p<.01	217
Retail browsing	1	4.12 (2.05)	1-7	-	2.53	p<.01	217
Retail visiting	1	4.17 (1.88)	1-7	-	2.19	p<.01	216
Library visiting	1	3.22 (2.50)	1-7	-	2.39	p<.01	214
CONSUMER CHARACTERISTICS							
Motivation (Involvement*Need for cognition)	1	12.56 (3.92)	-	-	.55	p>.05	216
Ability: Level of education	1	5.01 (1.52)	1-7	-	2.76	p<.01	216
EXPERTISE							
Names of authors read	1	7.77 (6.20)	-	-	.92	p>.05	217

M=mean; s.d.=standard deviation; Alpha=Cronbach's alpha; K-S z=Kolmogorov-Smirnov z-statistic; p=p-value; N=sample size

6.2.3 DESIGN AND PROCEDURE

During the three-week period, pollsters approached passers-by in Tilburg. If respondents met the requirements for inclusion in the sample, they were asked to participate. If they agreed, the interviewer took the respondent to a lunch-room where the respondent filled out the written questionnaire. There was no face-to-face contact between the respondent and the pollster and there were no time-limits for filling out the questionnaire. The order in which the concepts were

asked about in the questionnaire was the following: self-reported reading behaviour, expertise measure, variety seeking, need for cognition, involvement, information gathering, visiting the retail setting and the public library, gender, age, and level of education. It should be remembered that the latter variable was taken as an indicator of ability.

6.3 RESULTS

In section 6.3.1, the relationships between the familiarity measures and expertise are explored. In section 6.3.2 to 6.3.5, Propositions 4 and 5 are examined in which motivation and ability moderate the relationship between familiarity and expertise. Again, to minimise familywise error, an alpha of one percent was taken throughout this Chapter.

6.3.1 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN THE FAMILIARITY MEASURES AND EXPERTISE

Table 6.3 reports the correlations between familiarity and expertise.

In the first block of variables, positive and significant correlations were found between reading intensity, the reading of literature, the orientation towards newly-published books, and variety seeking, on the one hand, and expertise on the other ($p<.01$). There was no significant correlation between the reading of romance novels and expertise and mystery novels and expertise. The indicators of NMDIC and expertise were also positively and significantly correlated ($p<.01$): the greater ones familiarity with NMDIC, the greater one's expertise. With respect to mass-media usage, retail browsing, and retail visiting, their correlations with expertise were also positive and significant ($p<.01$). Library visiting, however, was not correlated with expertise ($p>.01$). The correlations suggest that, in general, expertise increases with familiarity for those behaviours that were found to be typical of highly-involved readers of (literary) fiction.

The left-hand column of Table 6.3 reports the correlations between involvement and the familiarity measures. All of the correlations were significant at a level of one percent, except the correlations with the reading of mystery novels and with opinion seeking. Relatively high correlations were found between involvement, on the one hand, and reading intensity, orientation towards newly-published books, opinion leadership, interpersonal communication, mass-media usage, and retail visiting, on the other ($r>.40$). Orientation towards newly-published books, opinion leadership, interpersonal communication, and retail visiting, in turn, correlated above .40 with expertise ($p<.01$).

Table 6.3: Pearson correlations between the familiarity measures and number of authors recalled as the expertise measure (N=217)

Involvement		Number of authors recalled
	FAMILIARITY: Consumption	
603*	Reading intensity	.294*
.274*	The reading of literature	.420*
.186*	The reading of romance novels	-.084
.025	The reading of mystery novels	-.154
.531*	Orientation towards newly-published books	.410*
.187*	Variety seeking	.207*
	FAMILIARITY: NMDIC	
.542*	Opinion leadership	.519*
.173	Opinion seeking	.286*
.457*	Interpersonal communication	.426*
	FAMILIARITY: MDIC	
.415*	Mass-media usage	.348*
.391*	Retail browsing	.315*
.400*	Retail visiting	.431*
.316*	Library visiting	.128

* Correlation is significant at 1% level (2-tailed)

6.3.2 EMPIRICAL TESTING OF PROPOSITIONS 4 AND 5: MODERATION OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FAMILIARITY AND EXPERTISE

In the theoretical introduction, a moderator was defined as a variable that affects the relationship between an independent or predictor variable (X) and a dependent or criterion variable (Y). In the sections below, the hypotheses are examined that motivation and ability act as moderator variables on the relationship between familiarity and expertise.

Arnold (1982) distinguished between the degree (or strength) and the form of the relationship between two variables X and Y. The correlation coefficient r_{xy} is the index of the strength of the relationship where the square of the correlation coefficient r^2 indicates the percentage of variance of Y accounted for by X. The regression coefficient B_{yx} is the index of the form of the relationship, indicating the amount of score difference in Y associated with a one-unit score change in X. As Arnold (1982) put it "...If both the degree and form of the relationship of Y to X do remain constant across different values of the moderator variable Z, then the relationship is said to be constant or unconditional with regard to Z. If, on the other hand, either the degree or the form of the relationship between Y

and X is not constant but changes systematically across the different values of Z, then the relationship is conditional upon Z". According to Cohen and Cohen (1975; p.66), "...comparisons of correlations answer the question 'does X account for as much of the variance in Y in group E as in group F?". Whereas "...comparisons of regression coefficients answer the question 'does a change in X make the same amount of score difference in Y in group E as it does in group F?'". In order to study whether the relationship between X and Y is conditional upon a third variable Z, it is necessary to examine whether the r_{xy} (in the case of different strengths of relationships) and the B_{xy} (in the case of different forms of relationships) are significantly different from one another for different values of Z (Arnold, 1982).

With these considerations in mind, it is first examined whether motivation and ability moderate the degree of the relationship between familiarity and expertise. Subsequently, it is investigated whether motivation and ability affect the form of the relationship between familiarity and expertise. This is illustrated in Figure 6.2.

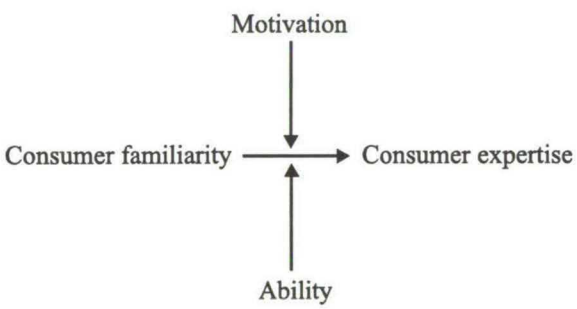

Figure 6.2: The moderating effect of motivation and ability on the relationship between familiarity and expertise

6.3.3 THE EFFECT OF MOTIVATION AND ABILITY ON THE DEGREE OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FAMILIARITY AND EXPERTISE

Motivation moderates the relationship between familiarity and expertise (Proposition 4), and this relationship becomes stronger as motivation increases. The same is true for ability (Proposition 5). Because of the distinction between the degree and the form of the relationship, two hypothesis were derived regarding the degree of the relationship:

Hypothesis 6.1:
Motivation moderates the degree of the relationship between familiarity and expertise: the relationship becomes stronger as motivation increases.

Hypothesis 6.2:
Ability moderates the degree of the relationship between familiarity and expertise: the relationship becomes stronger as ability increases.

Method

The moderating effect of a continuous variable on the relationship between a continuous independent and a continuous dependent variable, is measured by dichotomising the moderator at the point where the independent-dependent variable relation is expected to be altered, and to correlate the independent variable with the dependent variable for each category of the dichotomised variable (Baron and Kenny, 1986). Testing the difference in correlations between the two groups then answers the question whether the moderator variable affects the strength of the relationship between the independent and the dependent variable.

Testing hypothesis 6.1

To measure the effect of motivation on the degree of the relationship between familiarity and expertise without interference of ability, partial correlations were computed, given controls for ability. A distinction was made between low- and high-motivation groups, using a mean split with a cut-off point of 12.5. The results of the correlational analyses are reported in Table 6.4.

As the z-statistics indicate, none of the partial correlations between the familiarity measures and expertise were significantly different from each other at the level of alpha is one percent for both motivation groups: the results do not support the hypothesis. The degree of the relationship between familiarity and expertise is no larger for the high-motivation group than the low-motivation group. Though not significant at a level of alpha is one percent, the difference in correlations is in the expected direction for the reading of literature, having an orientation towards newly-published books, opinion leadership, opinion seeking, retail browsing, and retail visiting. These were earlier identified as typical of highly-involved readers. The correlations suggest that the relationship between familiarity and expertise becomes stronger under conditions of high motivation for those behaviours that are typical of highly-involved readers of literary fiction.

Testing hypothesis 6.2

For ability, two groups were formed by splitting primary education through pre-university education from vocational colleges/university.

Table 6.4: A test of the moderation of the degree of the relationship between familiarity and expertise under conditions of low versus high motivation, with controls for ability

	MOTIVATION			
	low	high		Significance (two-tailed)
	(N=102)	(N=101)	Fisher's Z-statistic	(N.S.=not significant at the 1 percent level)
Correlations between expertise and...				
reading intensity	.34	.16	1.35	N.S.
amount of literature read	.25	.37	-0.93	N.S.
amount of romance novels read	.12	-.22	2.42	N.S.
amount of mystery novels read	-.03	-.13	.71	N.S.
orientation towards newly-published books	.24	.43	-1.51	N.S.
variety seeking	.13	.11	.15	N.S.
	(N=105)	(N=103)		
Correlations between expertise and...				
opinion leadership	.41	.49	-.71	N.S.
opinion seeking	.17	.30	-.98	N.S.
interpersonal communication	.42	.28	1.14	N.S.
	(N=104)	(N=102)		
Correlations between expertise and...				
mass-media usage	.27	.24	.23	N.S.
retail browsing	.18	.19	-.07	N.S.
retail visiting frequency	.26	.39	-1.03	N.S.
library visiting frequency	.30	.03	1.98	N.S.

Since there was an overrepresentation of respondents with a high level of education, this division was made to yield groups that were more or less equal in

size.[37] The results are reported in Table 6.5.

They show that none of the Fisher's z-statistics were significant at a level of alpha is one percent. The amount of variance that familiarity explained in expertise did not vary with ability: hypothesis 6.2 is not confirmed. Ability does not moderate the degree of the relationship between familiarity and expertise. The differences in correlations were in the expected direction for the reading of literature, variety seeking, and mass-media usage. They were, however, not significant ($p>.01$).

6.3.4 THE EFFECT OF MOTIVATION AND ABILITY ON THE FORM OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FAMILIARITY AND EXPERTISE

In this section, it is examined whether motivation and ability moderate the form of the relationship between familiarity and expertise.

Method

In section 6.3.2, it was argued that the regression coefficient B_{yx} was the index of the form of the relationship, indicating the amount of score difference in Y associated with a one-unit score change in X. Arnold (1982) proved that the test of significance of the difference between the Bs for two subgroups E and F is identical to the test of the significance of the partial coefficients associated with the product term in the multiple regression. If the partial coefficients associated with the XZ product term (the interaction effect) are statistically significant, the substantive interpretation is that the form of the relationship between X and Y is moderated by Z (and equivalently that the form of the relationship between Z and Y is conditional[38] upon X).

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[37] The method for examining the effect of one variable on the strength of the relationship between two others has as a possible deficiency that it assumes that the independent variable has equal variance at each level of the moderator (Baron and Kenny, 1986). For both ability groups, variances were unequal for reading intensity and the reading of literature ($p<.05$). One way to deal with the inequality of variances is to take groups with equal sample sizes.

[38] An interaction effect is a conditional effect: "an interaction signifies that the regression of the dependent variable (Y: number of authors recalled) on X (reading intensity) depends upon the specific value of Z (level of motivation) at which the slope of Y on X is measured" (Aiken and West, 1991; 10 in Stokmans, 1998). If, for example, the interaction (X*Z) between reading intensity (X), and motivation (Z) is a significant predictor of the number of authors recalled (Y), in addition to the main effects of reading intensity and motivation, then motivation moderates the form of the relationship between reading intensity and number of authors recalled (Arnold, 1982).

Table 6.5: A test of the moderation of the degree of the relationship between familiarity and expertise under conditions of low versus high ability, with controls for motivation.

	ABILITY			
	low	high		Significance (two-tailed)
	(N=111)	(N=93)	Fisher's Z-statistic	(N.S.=not significant at the 1 percent level)
Correlations between expertise and...				
reading intensity	.18	.14	.29	N.S.
amount of literature read	.27	.34	-.54	N.S.
amount of romance novels read	-.06	-.16	.71	N.S.
amount of mystery novels read	-.08	-.16	.57	N.S.
orientation towards newly-published books	.37	.16	1.59	N.S.
variety seeking	.09	.18	-.64	N.S.
	(N=116)	(N=93)		
Correlations between expertise and...				
opinion leadership	.49	.27	1.83	N.S.
opinion seeking	.24	.23	.08	N.S.
interpersonal communication	.32	.28	.31	N.S.
	(N=115)	(N=92)		
Correlations between expertise and...				
mass-media usage	.17	.28	-.82	N.S.
retail browsing	.20	.13	.51	N.S.
retail visiting	.37	.25	.94	N.S
library visiting	.16	.00	1.13	N.S.

Stokmans (1998) noted that there is debate about the proper value of the zero point of the predictor variables: should it be X=0 and Z=0 or the average of X and Z? Following Aiken and West (1991), and Stokmans (1998), the centered score of each predictor was taken as a reference point by subtracting the mean (a constant) from each score for each predictor. There are two reasons for deciding

to do this (Aiken and West (1991), Stokmans, 1998): first, regression coefficients in a regression equation containing interactions, are conditional effects, and second, they describe the effect of one predictor on the criterion variable under the condition in which the other predictor equals a specified value. For a conditional effect to be useful, the point on the other predictor at which it is evaluated must be meaningful. In this study, involvement and need for cognition were measured by five-point Likert scales ranging from 1 to 5. The regression coefficient for Y on X would have to be the slope of Y on X at the value Z=0. However, the value 0 has no meaning because it is not defined on the scale. If the predictors are centred, then the value of 0 is the mean of each predictor which is typically meaningful (Aiken and West, 1991). Second, if an interaction term (XZ) is computed, the problem of multicollinearity rises. As Aiken and West (1991) have proven, centering the raw data helps minimise this problem.

To test whether motivation and ability moderated the form of the relationship, regression analyses were conducted with expertise as the dependent and familiarity, motivation, and ability as the independent variables. The effect of the consumer characteristics on the relationship between familiarity and expertise was estimated by specifying two interaction terms (XZ) between the corresponding variables X and Z. Entering all possible main and interaction effects into the regression analysis resulted in 38 independent variables on a total set of 217 respondents. Thus, regression equations were computed for each block (consumption, NMDIC, and MDIC) of familiarity measures to maintain sufficient degrees of freedom.

6.3.4.1 The effect of motivation and ability on the form of the relationship between consumption and expertise

Using Proposition 4 and 5 as a point of departure, two hypotheses were formulated:

Hypothesis 6.3:
Motivation moderates the form of the relationship between consumption behaviour and expertise: motivation intensifies the effect of consumption behaviour on expertise.

Hypothesis 6.4:
Ability moderates the form of the relationship between consumption behaviour and expertise: ability intensifies the effect of consumption behaviour on expertise.

Results

First, it was determined which independent variables contribute to the prediction

of expertise (model 1). The first order effects of motivation and ability were entered and the change in F-value was examined (model 2). The hypotheses were tested at the model level by adding the interaction effects to model 2 and examining the change in F-value (model 3). This procedure is not affected by multicollinearity of the independent variables (Hanushek and Jackson, 1977). Subsequently, the size as well as direction of the effect of each of the independent variables on expertise was explored.

Testing the significance of successive models

The results of the regression analyses are reported in Table 6.6. The reading of mystery novels was entered as a dummy ('0' was 'not reading mystery novels'; '1' was 'reading mystery novels') into the regression equations because the distribution of the variable was too discontinuous. Eight outliers were removed by inspecting the casewise plot of residuals outliers. The assumptions of the equality of variance, linearity, and independence of error were not violated.

Table 6.6: A test of moderation of the form of the relationship between consumption behaviour and expertise

Independent variable (y):	R-square	Adj. R-square	F-change	Sign. F-change
Model 1: Reading intensity, amount of literature read, amount of romance novels read, amount of mystery novels read, orientation towards newly-published books, and variety seeking	.36	.34	18.03	p<.01
Model 2: Model 1 + first-order effects of motivation and ability	.42	.40	10.57	p<.01
Model 3: Model 2 + second-order interaction effects of motivation and ability with consumption behaviour	.47	.42	1.50	p>.05

First, the main effects of the consumption-behaviour variables were entered into the regression equation. These main effects constitute model 1. The variables explained 36% of the variance of expertise (Adjusted R^2=.34; F-value=18.03; p<.01). Adding the main effects of motivation and ability to model 1 resulted in an R^2 change of .06 which was significant at the one percent level (model 2) (Adjusted R^2-change=.06; F-change=10.57; p<.01). In model 3, the interaction effects were added to model 2. Though the amount of variance increased from .42 to .47, the F-change was not significant (F-change=1.50; p>.05). However, all of the variables together predicted expertise successfully (R-square=.47;

Adjusted R-square=.42; p<.01).

Examining the significance of single coefficients

At this point, the hypotheses at the predictor level are examined by means of the individual regression coefficients in Appendix 6.3 and Table 6.7. The correlation matrix is reported in Appendix 6.2.

Appendix 6.3 reports the individual effects of consumption, motivation, and ability for the three models. The reading of literature (t=5.15; p<.01), the reading of romance novels (t=2.90; p<.01), and orientation towards newly-published books (t=4.46; p<.01) were significant predictors of expertise in model 1. The reading of mystery novels was significant at the five percent level (t=2.30). In line with expectations, there was a lack of effect of reading intensity on expertise (t=-1.59; p>.05). The amount of fiction that is read was not predictive of the amount of expertise. Variety seeking was also not successful in predicting expertise (t=-1.39; p>.05).

Examination of the regression coefficients of model 2 (Appendix 6.3), makes it clear that the reading of literature (t=4.17; p<.01), orientation towards newly-published books (t=3.67; p<.01), and ability (t=3.84; p<.01) were significant at the one percent level. The coefficients were positive and indicate that readers of literature, consumers with an orientation towards newly-published books, and more highly-educated people had greater levels of expertise. The reading of mystery novels remained marginally significant (t=2.33; p<.05) whereas the reading of romance novels became marginally significant (t=2.41; p<.05). The effect of reading romance novels diminished when motivation and ability were added to model 1: ability took over part of the effect of reading romance novels (t=3.84; p<.01). Reading intensity (t=-1.42), variety seeking (t=-1.39), and motivation (t=1.51) were not successful in predicting expertise (p>.01). The minor changes in betas between the two models may point at some multicollinearity between the variables. This supports the decision to test the hypotheses at the model level, and to further explore them at the predictor level. The regression coefficients of model 3 are discussed below (see Table 6.7).

The reader should keep in mind that since the raw data were centred the estimated effects of the predictor variables (X and Z) in the centered regression equation that contains interaction effects, pertain to the weighted average effect of the predictor on the dependent variable across all observed values of the other predictor (Aiken and West, 1991). The interpretation of the *b*s as conditional effects of predictors at the mean of other predictors may well be useful in clarifying relationships under investigation. However, they may not be interpreted as main effects, or as the constant effect, of one variable across all values of another variable (Aiken and West, 1991).

Furthermore, the t-tests of the standardised regression coefficients for the interaction term in the centered versus noncentered analyses are identical (Aiken and West, 1991). This makes it possible to test the significance of the *b*s of the

Table 6.7: The individual effects of consumption, motivation, and ability on expertise for model 3

Independent variable (y):	B	Se B	Beta	t	Sig. t
MODEL 3					
main effects					
reading intensity	-.546	.517	-.136	-1.057	N.S.
amount of literature read	.016	.005	.535	3.440	**p<.01**
amount of romance novels read	.010	.005	.323	2.129	p<.05
amount of mystery novels read (dummy)	1.680	.985	.151	1.705	N.S.
orientation towards newly-published books	1.438	.422	.240	3.410	**p<.01**
variety seeking	-.483	.482	-.061	-1.003	N.S.
motivation	.084	.157	.061	.532	N.S.
ability	1.038	.374	.302	2.899	**p<.01**
interaction effects					
reading intensity*motivation	-.102	.168	-.104	-.607	N.S.
reading intensity*ability	-.055	.369	-.021	-.150	N.S.
literature read*motivation	.001	.002	.167	.816	N.S.
literature read*ability	.001	.004	.026	.155	N.S.
romance novels read*motivation	.001	.002	.110	.580	N.S.
romance novels read*ability	-.001	.004	-.044	-.268	N.S.
mystery novels read*motivation	.149	.311	.070	.479	N.S.
mystery novels read*ability	-.454	.770	-.085	-.589	N.S.
orientation towards newly-published books*motivation	.285	.104	.191	2.741	**p<.01**
orientation towards newly-published books*ability	-.163	.285	-.038	-.572	N.S.
variety seeking*motivation	-.159	.132	-.074	-1.200	N.S.
variety seeking*ability	.387	.356	.073	1.088	N.S.

B=unstandardised regression coefficient; Se B=standard error of estimation; Beta=standardised regression coefficient; t=t-value; sig. t=significance t-value (two-tailed); N.S.=not significant (p>.01)

interaction effects. With these considerations in mind, the results of Model 3 were interpreted.

The reading of literature (t=3.44), an orientation towards newly-published books (t=3.41), and ability (t=2.90) remained significant at a level of alpha is one percent. Reading romance novels was marginally significant (t=2.13; p<.05). The interaction effect of motivation with orientation towards newly-published

books was significant (t=2.74; p<.01), implying that the relationship between orientation towards newly-published books and expertise is dependent upon the concrete level of motivation. Recall that though one interaction effect was significant, adding all of the interaction effects did not result in a significant amount of variance explained at the model level (p>.01). The results did not support hypotheses 6.3 and 6.4: motivation and ability did not moderate the form of the relationship between familiarity with consumption and expertise.

6.3.4.2 The effect of motivation and ability on the form of the relationship between NMDIC and expertise

The following hypotheses were derived from Proposition 4 and 5:

Hypothesis 6.5:
Motivation moderates the form of the relationship between NMDIC and expertise: motivation intensifies the effect of NMDIC on expertise.

Hypothesis 6.6:
Ability moderates the form of the relationship between NMDIC and expertise: ability intensifies the effect of NMDIC on expertise.

Testing the significance of successive models

Inspection of the different plots in the regression analysis revealed that no basic assumptions (equality of variance, linearity, and independence of error) were violated. Eleven outliers were removed on the basis of the casewise plot of residual outliers.

Table 6.8: A test for moderation of the form of the relationship between NMDIC and expertise

Independent variable (y):	R-square	Adj. R-square	F-change	Sign. F-change
Model 1: Opinion leadership, opinion seeking, and interpersonal communication	.37	.36	39.36	p<.01
Model 2: Model 1 + first-order effects of motivation and ability	.45	.44	14.05	p<.01
Model 3: Model 2 + second-order interaction effects of motivation and ability with NMDIC	.53	.51	5.51	p<.01

It can be derived from Table 6.8 that Model 1 - NMDIC - explained about 37 percent of the variance (R-square=.37; Adjusted R-square=.36; F-value=39.36;

p<.01) of the criterion variable 'number of authors read recalled'. Adding motivation and ability (Model 2) increased the amount of variance explained by 8 percent which is significant (R^2=.45; Adjusted R^2=.44; F-change=14.05; p<.01). Model 3 was obtained by adding the interaction effects to Model 2. The increase in amount of explained variance was .08 (Adjusted R-square change=.07). The F-change was significant (R-square=.53; Adjusted R-square=.51; F-value=5.51; p<.01). The interaction effects added to the amount of explained variance.

Examining the significance of single coefficients

The correlation between opinion leadership and interpersonal communication and the correlation between opinion leadership and opinion seeking indicated multicollinearity (r=.69 respectively r=.55) (see Appendix 6.4). Therefore, the variable with the strongest effect on expertise will suppress the effect of the other two variables. When there is multicollinearity, the comparison of the regression coefficients will be flawed. Given the particular interest in the significance of the interaction effects for hypotheses testing purposes, multicollinearity was not a problem. The word of caution concerns the interpretation of the values of the Betas in model 1 and 2.

Appendix 6.5, reporting the individual regression coefficients for model 1, shows that opinion leadership was the only variable that contributes significantly to the amount of explained variance (p<.01). Though the correlation between interpersonal communication and expertise was .43 (Table 6.3), its effect was suppressed by opinion leadership. Multicollinearity is probably responsible for this finding. Motivation and ability were both predictive of expertise (t=2.84; p<.01 and t=3.65; p<.01, respectively) in model 2. The effect of opinion leadership remained significant (t=4.85; p<.01), though diminished slightly. Opinion leaders, highly motivated consumers, and consumers with high degrees of ability have more consumer expertise. Table 6.9 shows the regression coefficients for model 3.

The Table shows that the interaction effect of opinion leadership and motivation was significant (t=3.75; p<.01): hypothesis 6.5 is partially confirmed.[39] The relationship between opinion leadership and expertise intensifies as motivation increases. None of the interaction effects of familiarity with ability were significant (alpha is one percent) which is contradictory to hypothesis 6.6. The effects of opinion leadership (t=4.81), motivation (t=3.63), and ability (t=3.81) remained significant at the level of alpha is one percent.

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[39] It is stated that a hypothesis is partially confirmed if at least one of the interaction effects is significant at a level of one percent.

Table 6.9: The individual effects of NMDIC, motivation, and ability on expertise for model 3

Independent variable (y):	B	Se B	Beta	t	Sig. t
MODEL 3					
main effects					
opinion leadership	2.019	.420	.403	4.810	**p<.01**
opinion seeking	.517	.355	.092	1.457	N.S.
interpersonal communication	-.037	.194	-.014	-.190	N.S.
motivation	.320	.088	.230	3.629	**p<.01**
ability	.753	.198	.207	3.806	**p<.01**
interaction effects					
opinion leadership*motivation	.377	.101	.290	3.745	**p<.01**
opinion leadership*ability	-.276	.225	-.085	-1.225	N.S.
opinion seeking*motivation	.129	.087	.093	1.484	N.S.
opinion seeking*ability	-.121	.098	-.070	-1.226	N.S.
interpersonal communication*motivation	-.010	.051	-.132	-1.865	N.S.
interpersonal communication*ability	.147	.124	.082	1.180	N.S.

B=unstandardised regression coefficient; Se B=standard error of estimation; Beta=standardised regression coefficient; t=t-value; sig. t=significance t-value (two-tailed); N.S.=not significant (p>.01)

6.3.4.3 The effect of motivation and ability on the form of the relationship between MDIC and expertise

The following hypotheses were derived from Proposition 4 and 5:

Hypothesis 6.7:
Motivation moderates the form of the relationship between MDIC and expertise: motivation intensifies the relationship between MDIC and expertise.

Hypothesis 6.8:
Ability moderates the form of the relationship between MDIC and expertise: ability intensifies the relationship between MDIC and expertise.

Testing the significance of successive models

There were no violations of the assumptions of equality of variance, linearity, and independence of error. Multicollinearity was viewed as a potential problem due to the high correlation between retail browsing and retail visiting (r=.73)

(Appendix 6.6). However, the results of the regression analysis, as well as the Bs, did not change substantially if retail browsing was removed from the equation. Thus, the variables retail browsing and retail visiting both remained in the regression analysis. Sixteen outliers were removed on the basis of the casewise plot of residuals outliers. The results of the regression analyses are reported in Table 6.10.

Table 6.10: A test for moderation of the form of the relationship between MDIC and expertise

Independent variable (y):	R-square	Adj. R-square	F-change	Sign. F-change
Model 1: Mass-media usage, retail browsing, retail visiting, and library visiting	.26	.25	16.79	p<.01
Model 2: Model 1 + first order effects of motivation and ability	.37	.35	15.79	p<.01
Model 3: Model 2 + second order interaction effects of motivation and ability with MDIC	.42	.38	2.13	p<.05

Model 1 explained about 26% of the variance (adjusted R-square=.25; F-value=16.79; p<.01). In model 2, the main effects of motivation and ability were added to model 1. The proportion of explained variance increased by 11% from 26% to 37% (adjusted R-square=35%). This increase was significant (F-change=15.79; p<.01). Finally, the interaction effects were added to Model 2 to yield Model 3. The increase in the proportion of explained variance was marginally significant (R-square=.42; adjusted R-square=.38; F-change=2.13; p<.05).

Examining the significance of single coefficients

Appendix 6.7 reports the regression coefficients for the three models. In model 1, only retail-visiting frequency was a successful predictor of expertise (t=4.99; p<.01). Mass-media usage was marginally significant in predicting expertise (t=2.28; p<.05).

In model 2, both motivation and ability were significant predictors of expertise (t=3.43; p<.01 and t=3.52; p<.01 respectively). The B of retail visiting decreased but remained significant (p<.01). Apparently, motivation and ability account for some of the variance initially explained by retail visiting. Whereas the effect of mass-media usage was significant in the first model, the effect became non-significant in model 2 (t=1.19; p>.05). Table 6.11 reports the regression coefficients for model 3.

The table shows that the interaction effect of retail visiting with motivation

Table 6.11: The individual effects of MDIC, motivation, and ability on expertise for model 3

Independent variable (y):	B	Se B	Beta	t	Sig. t
MODEL 3					
main effects					
mass-media usage	.211	.158	.096	1.336	N.S.
retail browsing	-.174	.215	-.072	-.809	N.S.
retail visiting	.849	.235	.319	3.610	**p<.01**
library visiting	.196	.125	.097	1.570	N.S.
motivation	.333	.087	.263	3.821	**p<.01**
ability	.671	.218	.206	3.084	**p<.01**
Interaction effects					
mass-media usage*motivation	.036	.044	.058	.830	N.S.
mass-media usage*ability	.093	.109	.064	.859	N.S.
retail browsing*motivation	.-.071	.052	-.112	-1.357	N.S.
retail browsing*ability	.345	.157	.206	2.192	p<.05
retail visiting*motivation	.155	.058	.210	2.666	**p<.01**
retail visiting*ability	-.350	.165	-.195	-2.124	p<.05
library visiting*motivation	.016	.033	.031	.490	N.S.
library visiting*ability	-.091	.085	-.067	-1.064	N.S.

B=unstandardised regression coefficient; Se B=standard error of estimation; Beta=standardised regression coefficient; t=t-value; sig. t=significance t-value (two-tailed); N.S.=not significant (p>.01)

was significant (t=2.67; p<.01). The interaction effects of retail browsing with ability and of retail visiting with ability were marginally significant (t=2.19; p<.05 and t=-2.12; p<.05, respectively). Hypothesis 6.7 is partially confirmed, whereas hypothesis 6.8 is partially confirmed only if alpha is set at the five percent level. The sign of the interaction effect of retail visiting and ability was negative, implying that an increase in retail visiting leads to a decrease in expertise if ability increases. The signs of the interaction effect between retail browsing and ability, as well as retail visiting and motivation were positive. This implies that high ability intensifies the effect of retail browsing on expertise, whereas a high motivation intensifies the effect of retail visiting on expertise.

6.3.5 OVERALL REGRESSION ANALYSIS

The regression analyses in this study checked the assumed moderating effect of motivation and ability on the relationship between familiarity and expertise. As a result of statistical considerations, the analyses were conducted for each block of

familiarity measures. This procedure did not take into consideration that relationships might exist between familiarity measures belonging to different blocks. However, familiarity measures that were not successful in predicting expertise will also perform poorly in combination with other familiarity measures. In the following regression analysis, therefore, all first-order effects and interaction effects that were significant in the previous analyses at the level of one percent were successively entered into the equation to determine how the different familiarity measures interacted with motivation and ability.

The order in which predictors were entered was: consumption behaviour, NMDIC, MDIC, motivation, ability, and the interaction effects. The interaction effects were entered last because it was assumed that they would affect the first-order effects (Aiken and West, 1991). No assumptions regarding the equality of variance, linearity, and independence of error were violated. Seventeen outliers were removed on the basis of the casewise plot of residuals outliers.

Testing the significance of successive models

Table 6.12 shows the amount of variance explained by each model.

Table 6.12: Examining the best predictors of expertise by means of stepwise regression

Independent variable (y):	R-square	Adj. R-square	F-change	Sign. F-change
Model 1: The reading of literature and orientation towards newly-published books	.33	.33	47.44	p<.01
Model 2: Model 1 + opinion leadership	.47	.46	49.99	p<.01
Model 3: Model 2 + retail visiting	.50	.49	8.01	p<.01
Model 4: Model 3 + motivation and ability	.53	.52	6.75	p<.01
Model 5: Model 4 + interaction effects of motivation with orientation towards newly-published books, opinion leadership, and retail visiting	.60	.58	10.95	p<.01

Model 1 consisted of the reading of literature and orientation towards newly-published books and explained about 33% of the variance (Adjusted R-square=.33; F-value=47.44; p<.01). If opinion leadership was added to Model 1, the amount of variance explained increased to 47% (Adjusted R-square=46%). If retail visiting was entered into the regression equation in model 3, an additional 3% of the variance was explained (F-change=8.01; p<.01). In Model 4, motivation and ability were entered, explaining an extra 3% of the variance (F-

change=6.75; p<.01). Finally, if the interaction effects were entered into the regression equation, the amount of explained variance increased significantly by an additional 7% to 60% (adjusted R-square=58%; F-change=10.95; p<.01).

Examining the significance of single coefficients

The correlation matrix is depicted in Appendix 6.8. In model 1 (see Appendix 6.9), the reading of literature and orientation towards newly-published books contributed significantly to the explanation of expertise (t=4.81; p<.01 and t=5.80; p<.01, respectively). In model 2, orientation towards newly-published books was no longer successful in predicting expertise (p>.01). Its effect seems to be taken over by opinion leadership (t=7.07; p<.01): opinion leadership comprises orientation towards newly-published books. The latter variable did not explain some additional proportion of the variance of expertise if opinion leadership was taken into account, pointing at some degree of multicollinearity (their mutual correlation is .63 (p<.01)). Retail visiting was significant in model 3 as a predictor of expertise (t=2.83; p<.01). In model 4, only opinion leadership (t=5.54) and ability (t=2.83) remained significant at the one percent level. Ability, operationalised by level of education, took over part of the effect of the reading of literature. The reading of literature was now only marginally significant (t=2.50; p<.05) in predicting expertise. The correlation between the reading of literature and level of education was not extremely high (r=.33; p<.01) but apparently sufficient to take over part of the effect of the reading of literature. Table 6.13 reports the individual effects for model 5.

Table 6.13: The individual effects of the main and interaction effects on expertise for model 5

Independent variable (y):	B	Se B	Beta	t	Sig. t
MODEL 5					
amount of literature read	.003	.002	.105	1.891	N.S.
orientation towards newly-published books	.183	.398	.030	.459	N.S.
opinion leadership	2.274	.391	.381	5.820	**p<.01**
retail visiting	.438	.170	.150	2.583	**p<.01**
motivation	.216	.081	.158	2.683	**p<.01**
ability	.568	.189	.158	3.011	**p<.01**
motivation*orientation towards newly-published books	.071	.096	.047	.733	N.S.
motivation*opinion leadership	.311	.107	.207	2.916	**p<.01**
motivation*retail visiting	.042	.045	.053	.935	N.S.

B=unstandardised regression coefficient; Se B=standard error of estimation; Beta=standardised regression coefficient; t=t-value; sig. t=significance t-value (two-tailed); N.S.=not significant (p>.01)

In this model, only the interaction effect of opinion leadership with motivation ($t=2.92$; $p<.01$) remained successful in predicting expertise: motivation intensified the relationship between opinion leadership and expertise. The other two interaction effects were not significant ($p>.01$), probably as a result of multicollinearity (see Appendix 6.8). The correlation between the interaction effect of motivation/opinion leadership and motivation/orientation towards newly-published books was .68 ($p<.01$). The correlation between the interaction effect of motivation/opinion leadership and motivation/retail visiting was .54 ($p<.01$). Opinion leadership, retail visiting, motivation, and ability remained significant main effects ($p<.01$).

6.4 DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

In this chapter, the relationship was examined between familiarity and expertise for readers of fiction. Motivation and ability were expected to intensify the strength and the form of the relationship between these two consumer knowledge components.

The correlations between familiarity and expertise were similar to those reported in the previous chapter. The reading of literature, orientation towards newly-published books, opinion leadership, interpersonal communication, and retail visiting correlated significantly at the one percent level and above .40 with expertise. Reading intensity, variety seeking, opinion seeking, mass-media usage, and retail browsing also correlated significantly with expertise ($p<.01$), but below .40. The exceptions were romance novels reading, mystery novels reading, and library visiting: no systematic tendency was observed which pointed to high degrees of familiarity with these behaviours being associated with high degrees of expertise, nor low familiarity being similarly associated with low expertise, or vice versa. The strong correlations between the first group of measures (all above .40) suggests that the relationship between familiarity and expertise is linear for readers of literature. As highly-involved, intense readers of literary fiction were overrepresented, there might be intercorrelations between the reading of literature, having an orientation towards newly-published books, being an opinion leader, visiting the retail setting often, and possessing a high degree of expertise (see Appendix 6.9). Thus, a strong positive relationship between familiarity and expertise may be dependent on whether an individual reads literature (which is very likely if one is highly involved), is oriented towards newly-published books, acts as an opinion leader, and whether or not additional information is gathered from marketeer-dominated sources.

It was hypothesised that motivation and ability moderated the strength of the relationship between familiarity and expertise. The results did not support these hypotheses. A possible explanation is that, as Baron and Kenny (1986) noted, the method used to test the hypotheses has two possible deficiencies. First, it was

assumed that the independent variables would have equal variance at both levels of the moderator. For example, the variance of orientation towards newly-published books must be the same for both motivation groups. If not, the correlations of the independent variables with the dependent variable will be less for the group with less variance, as a result of a restriction in range (McNemar, 1969; Baron and Kenny, 1986). Second, if the amount of measurement error in the dependent variables varies as a function of the moderator, the correlation between the independent and the dependent variable will differ spuriously (McNemar, 1969; Baron and Kenny, 1986). It was checked whether the familiarity measures had equal variances at both levels of motivation and ability. In the case of motivation, this proved to be the case, except for the variables reading intensity, the reading of literature, the reading of mystery novels, and mass-media usage ($p<.05$). For both ability groups, variances were unequal for reading intensity and the reading of literature ($p<.05$). An effort was made to overcome these inequalities of variances by taking groups with equal sample sizes (Baron and Kenny, 1986).

The variables with unequal variances were described earlier as worrisome due to their negatively-skewed distribution. Consequently, restriction of range was of concern. Due to the overrepresentation of respondents on certain familiarity measures, groups were formed that both scored relatively high on certain variables. Though the variances differed significantly only for reading intensity and the reading of literature, variance was restricted for the highly-motivated group. Correlations might then be spuriously high for the group that has the largest range whereas correlations between two variables will be underestimated for the group with the smallest range of scores. Since the range of score will be lowest for the highly-involved groups, correlations will be suppressed and differences will be harder to detect.

Another plausible explanation for the inability to find a moderating effect of motivation and ability on the strength of the relationship between familiarity and expertise is that, as Arnold (1982) put it: "...even very large differences in correlations require formidable sample sizes in order to attain adequate power, and as the magnitude of differences becomes smaller, the required sample sizes become quite intimidating". Since the sample size in this study was relatively small, any large differences in correlations between the two groups were bound to be found.

In summary, the results were against expectations that motivation and ability moderated the degree of the relationship between familiarity and expertise. The strength of the relationship between the two aspects of consumer knowledge did not differ between the two motivation and ability groups. Given the statistical and methodological considerations, however, some caution in judging the firmness of these conclusions is required.

In the regression-analyses, a simultaneous analysis took place of the effect of the familiarity measures, motivation, and ability as well as their interaction effects on

expertise. Analyses were conducted for each category of familiarity indicators. With respect to consumption-related familiarity, the reading of literature, orientation towards newly-published books, and ability as main effects successfully explained the amount of expertise. The interaction effect of orientation towards newly-published books and motivation was significant at the predictor level: the (predicting) effect of orientation towards newly-published on expertise was higher if motivation increased. Reading intensity was not successful in predicting expertise, indicating that reading on a frequent basis alone is not sufficient for acquiring consumer expertise. Regression analyses on the second block of familiarity measures revealed that opinion-leadership behaviour, motivation, ability, and the interaction effect of opinion leadership with motivation were successful predictors of expertise. The last sets of regression equations identified familiarity with visiting the bookstore, motivation, and ability, as well as the interaction effect between retail visiting and motivation as the best predictors of expertise.

In a final overall regression analysis, the significant predictors (alpha is one percent) of each category of familiarity indicators were successively entered into the equation. Opinion leadership, retail visiting, motivation, ability, and the interaction effect of opinion leadership with motivation eventually explained a significant proportion of the variance of expertise, whereas the effects of the reading of literature, an orientation towards newly-published books, and both the interaction effects between motivation and orientation towards newly-published books, on the one hand, and motivation and retail visiting, on the other hand, diminished. The regression coefficients of these variables changed considerably in each step of the regression analysis (see Appendix 6.9). This points to multicollinearity between the reading of literature, an orientation towards newly-published books, opinion leadership, and retail visiting. Multicollinearity points to strong interrelationships between the independent variables of interest. The reading of literature, an orientation towards newly-published books, and retail visiting correlated with each other and with motivation and opinion leadership and are thus closely related to expertise. Since the variables bear a close resemblance to each other in terms of their linear relationship with expertise, the variable that has the strongest relationship will take (over) the effect, leaving the other variables with little or no value in explaining (some) additional variance. They are, however, all important and should not be disregarded, as is made clear by the factor- and correlational analysis. As a result of multicollinearity, the interested reader should be careful in interpreting the heights of the Betas in order to determine the individual effects of the familiarity measures on expertise, particularly in the overall regression analysis.

The purpose of conducting the regression analyses reported above was to test the hypotheses that motivation and ability intensify the effect of familiarity on expertise. The hypotheses were confirmed for only five out of twenty-six interaction effects examined. A plausible statistical explanation of why no

further significant interaction effects were found is that the likelihood of detecting a moderator variable by means of the t-test

$$t=\frac{b_3}{s_{b_3}}$$

depends upon the mutual distribution of probability of X (familiarity) and Z (moderator). To illustrate this, suppose that X and Z can have numeric values in the interval [-1, +1]. The power of the t-test will be the largest if a quarter of the cases is assigned to each of the angular points (-1, -1), (-1, +1), (+1, -1), and (+1, +1), as is done in experiments. In other words, extreme values for X co-occur with extreme values of Z. The power of the t-test will be zero if the cases are assigned equally to the following X, Z combinations: (0,-1), (0,1), (-1,0), (1,0); extreme values of one variable co-occur with central values of the other variable. The power of the t-test also decreases to the extent that the univariate distribution of scores of X and Z are less dispersed. Moreover, both variables should have extreme values in sufficient degrees. In an experimental design with manipulated factors with a limited number of values (or levels), the requirements mentioned above are more easily met then in a survey study where the values on the independent variables are often distributed along a (normal) bell curve. In the latter situation, central values are overrepresented whereas extreme values are underrepresented.

CHAPTER 7

SUMMARY AND EVALUATION

7.1 AIM AND FOCUS OF THIS STUDY

Though the multidimensional nature of consumer knowledge seems to be recognised by the conceptual distinction between familiarity and expertise, thus far little attention has been given to the multidimensional nature of familiarity and to traces of non-linearity in the relationship between familiarity and expertise.

The importance has been stressed of acknowledging multidimensional aspects of familiarity as well as a possible non-linear relationship between (aspects of) familiarity and expertise in the complex decision-making environment of fiction. The huge supply of fiction and the dynamic nature of its market, as well as the typicality of fiction, led to the expectation that both familiarity and expertise would differ substantially among consumers of fiction.

Departing from the assumed complex decision-making environment, the following research questions were addressed: "What is the dimensionality of familiarity with fiction; what is the effect of involvement on familiarity with fiction; how does familiarity with fiction relate to expertise; and what is the effect of motivation and ability on the relationship between familiarity and expertise?".

7.2 CONCEPTUALISATION AND MEASUREMENT OF CONSUMER KNOWLEDGE

The information processing view provided a theoretical framework. Insights from cognitive psychology and from the consumer-behaviour approach were combined to conceptualise consumer knowledge of fiction. Consumers were seen as information-processing systems and the decision-making process as an iterative process. From this perspective, consumer knowledge about (choosing) fiction was defined as: "the whole of product-related episodic, semantic, and procedural knowledge that is available at time t (to construct a problem space at time t+1)". It was supposed that consumer knowledge is acquired by product-related consumption and information-gathering behaviour. It was argued that semantic and procedural knowledge expressed expertise, referring to the components of the problem space and the competence to (re)construct the problem space. Episodic knowledge was regarded as being indicative of familiarity and concerned the personal relationships tied to semantic knowledge. This definition served as the departure point of the conceptualisations and

measurements of familiarity and expertise used in this study.

7.2.1 CONCEPTUALISATION AND MEASUREMENT OF FAMILIARITY

In line with Alba and Hutchinson (1987), it was assumed that familiarity is expressed by the (number of) product-related experiences consumers have collected in the past. A definition in behavioural terms cannot pertain to aspects of consumer knowledge. It was therefore assumed that residuals of these experiences are stored in memory in the form of episodic knowledge. Investigating frequency of behaviour requires the respondents to travel back in time mentally and to retrieve episodic knowledge from memory. This episodic knowledge is a reliable measure of familiarity and indicative of the degree and the type of familiarity consumers have with a product or activity. The degree of familiarity with a specific behaviour is expressed by the scores on the relevant scales, whereas the type is expressed by the contents of the specific indicator.

Familiarity was broken down into consumption experiences and information gathering. Consumption was differentiated into book reading, genre preferences, orientation towards newly-published books, and variety seeking. Information gathering was divided into non-marketeer-dominated interpersonal communication and marketeer-dominated impersonal communication. The first category comprised opinion leadership, opinion seeking, and interpersonal communication. Marketeer-dominated impersonal communication was expressed by mass-media usage and the visiting of distribution channels (on an ongoing search basis). The protocol analysis conducted in Chapter Five supported this categorisation. Familiarity was held to be a necessary but insufficient condition for expertise at choosing fiction titles.

7.2.2 CONCEPTUALISATION AND MEASUREMENT OF EXPERTISE

Expertise was defined as semantic and procedural knowledge from the consumer knowledge structure. Semantic knowledge comprises the elements of a problem space, whereas procedural knowledge is the competence to (re)construct this problem space. The proficiency of constructing a problem space is related to the elaborateness of the memory structure and the ease with which the elements of the problem space come to mind. The focus in this study was on the relationship between familiarity and semantic knowledge. Procedural knowledge was not studied.

Two types of indicators of semantic knowledge were used: knowledge relevant to deciding which fiction title to choose and knowledge of sources of information about fiction. Names of authors, of publishing houses, and of literary prizes were taken as indicators of the first category. Names of bookstores, newspapers, book critics, and television programs were taken as measures of the second type of indicators.

Expertise was measured by a recall task to allow for individual differences in

semantic knowledge. The measures were analysed for psychometric properties. Name of author was found to be the type of semantic knowledge with the best psychometric properties. When searching for (information about) books, the name of the author is elementary and available to all readers of fiction. Additionally, name of author was regarded as a key indicator in structuring knowledge of fiction.

7.3 INVOLVEMENT AND THE DIMENSIONALITY OF FAMILIARITY

It was hypothesised that the dimensions of consumption, NMDIC, and MDIC were conceptually orthogonal. This was globally confirmed by the results of the factor analysis. The analyses also revealed that some aspects of consumption could not be separated from marketeer-dominated impersonal communication (MDIC). Orientation towards newly-published books, and the reading of literature appeared to be inextricably bound to MDIC. Non-marketeer-dominated interpersonal communication (NMDIC) and the reading of romance novels possessed an underlying factor, whereas the reading of fiction in general, the reading of mystery novels, variety seeking, and library visiting made up the third factor. Though the factor analysis suggested that readers of fiction appear to differ strongly in patterns of consumption and information gathering, the results do not lead to firm conclusions about the exact dimensionality of familiarity: it is a multidimensional construct that consists of at least three conceptually distinct components, namely intensity of consumption, NMDIC, and MDIC.

Involvement and familiarity

Involvement with fiction was introduced to explain differences in patterns of familiarity. It was hypothesised that involvement with fiction affected both the degree and the structure of familiarity. Highly-involved consumers had a significantly higher reading intensity, a higher familiarity with the reading of literature in particular, and a greater orientation towards newly-published books, opinion leadership, interpersonal communication, and MDIC, compared to 'lowly'-involved consumers. There were no differences between the two involvement groups regarding the reading of romances, the reading of mystery novels, variety seeking, and opinion seeking. The latter four types of behaviour were equally distributed among readers of fiction, regardless of their involvement. Correlational analysis supported these results.

Interactions between different indicators of familiarity depending on involvement were examined by conducting Weighted Multidimensional Scaling and cluster analysis. The results showed that the structure, or the manner in which the different familiarity measures co-occurred, differed between the lowly- and the highly-involved groups. The degree and structure of familiarity

was summarised along the involvement dimension in Figure 4.2. A distinction was made between genre preferences, and familiarity consisting of intensity of consumption, NMDIC, and MDIC. As involvement increased, familiarity with fiction became more intense and more elaborate. On the one hand, genre preferences changed from romance novels through mystery novels to literature when involvement increased. On the other hand, consumption was supplemented by NMDIC at medium levels of involvement and also with MDIC at the highest levels of involvement. Moreover, the structure of familiarity was more elaborate and more clear-cut for the highly-involved group than for the lowly-involved group.

In the theoretical introduction, it was argued that the highly-involved group's consumption and information gathering would be triggered more quickly in more situations than that of the lowly-involved group. The results of this study showed that highly-involved consumers had high degrees of familiarity with a wider variety of activities. They did not limit their search to purchase-related needs but were continuously seeking information from friends, advertisements, and retail stores. The lowly-involved group's behaviour was less extensive, less elaborate, which is likely due to a lack of recognising opportunities and a lack of a need to do so as well. Consequently, the lowly-involved consumer's familiarity is less elaborate and weaker as well. Obviously, readers of fiction differ strikingly in patterns of consumption and information gathering; involvement explains these differences to a large extent.

Some methodological issues regarding involvement and familiarity are addressed next. First, scales were developed for these constructs that drew from the work of other researchers. However, over the three studies, the scales have been slightly modified. Hypotheses were examined and subjected to empirical tests on the basis of these modified scales. To assess the implications for the results so far, the analyses in Chapter Four were repeated (not reported here) by means of the data-set and the operationalisations applied in Chapter Six. The additional analyses supported our conclusions about familiarity as a multidimensional construct and differences in the degree and the structure of familiarity under different levels of involvement; additional support was given to the idea that the minor scale modifications and using a selection of items had no impact on the results.

Second, many of the familiarity measures were operationalised by means of five-point Likert scales. Scale ends ranged from 'never' to 'very often'. There is some discussion in literature about the accuracy of this scale type for measuring frequency of behaviour. Presenting questions in an agree/non-agree format is quite common practice in the social sciences (for example, I often make use of mass-media sources to inform myself about fiction: agree/not agree). However, in the pilot study, the respondents had difficulties answering frequency of occurrence questions in this format. Additionally, it is also usual to reverse the question (for example, I rarely ask a friend for advice). However, the statement is

either true or false. One either does rarely ask a friend for advice or one does not. Answering with a yes or no would be more accurate than expressing agreement with a statement about frequencies. If a respondent only partly agrees with this statement, not much is learned about the actual frequency with which a consumer is familiar with an activity. Thus, a scale was presented that clearly showed that an increase in scores implies an increase in frequency of occurrence. To reduce subjective interpretations of labels, only scale ends were labelled. Given these scale-technical considerations, it was concluded that these scales were preferable to statements inducing the respondents to express their agreement with a statement if the objective is to measure familiarity.

Third, the samples in this study suffered from some sample bias. Only those respondents participated who were at least moderately involved. However, the results appear to be reliable: differences were found in clusters of behaviours and consequently in familiarity. Behaviours exhibited by highly-involved consumers were more elaborate, effortful, and comprehensive than those manifested by lowly-involved respondents. Moreover, additional analyses (not reported here) revealed that those consumers who had actually low involvement with reading fiction (they had scale values below the scale mean of 2.5 on a five-point scale), engaged in all the consumer behaviours on a very infrequent base. For these respondents, familiarity was limited to the reading of literature on an about average basis and they exhibited average variety seeking. There was no familiarity with NMDIC and MDIC.

The skewness of the involvement variable over the three studies probably resulted in part from the sampling restriction, namely, having read a fiction title in the previous twelve months. In the first study, mail surveys were used. Only highly-involved consumers agreed to participate in the study. In the second study, consumers were approached in person. Though there was a sufficient number of consumers who had read at least one fiction title in the previous twelve months, only the consumers who were (relatively) highly involved agreed to participate in the study. Additionally, potential respondents often commented that they felt that they could make no useful contribution to the study because they did not read much. They did, however, meet the criterion for inclusion in the study. Attempts to convince these respondents of the importance of participating in the study were unsuccessful. This shows that these respondents were apparently not highly involved with reading fiction, and consequently, were not willing to participate in a time-consuming study about this subject. In Chapter Six, finally, the same phenomenon re-occurred. Apparently, this is a persistent problem. Either the sample was not representative since it included mainly consumers who were moderately to highly involved with reading fiction, or there are simply no readers who have read at least one fiction title in a year's time and at the same time are hardly involved with reading fiction. In other words, consumers of fiction are either moderately to highly involved or they are not involved with reading fiction at all. Both conclusions have support from the data.

7.4 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FAMILIARITY AND EXPERTISE AND THE MODERATING EFFECT OF MOTIVATION AND ABILITY

A preliminary examination of the data from the second study helped us gain insight into the relationships between familiarity and expertise. In the following sections, the results are summarised and reflected on.

7.4.1 THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FAMILIARITY AND EXPERTISE

A preliminary examination of the data from the second study revealed that the number of authors recalled was largest for those consumers who were highly involved with reading fiction, who had a preference for the reading of literature, who had an orientation towards newly-published books, regarded themselves as opinion leaders, made use of mass-media sources to inform themselves about fiction titles, and visited the bookstore often (on an ongoing-search basis).

The results of the second study showed a negative correlation between the reading of romance novels and the reading of mystery novels, on the one hand, and expertise, on the other. Reading fiction frequently is in itself no guarantee that expertise is acquired, whereas consumers who read less frequently may have substantial expertise, due to their involvement with fiction, their interest in literature, and their information-gathering behaviour. Both the extent of (literary fiction) consumption and information gathering as well as the diversity of this behaviour (in particular, engaging in MDIC) seem to be conditions for expertise, as expertise seems to increase as consumers are more involved with reading fiction. These insights can be used to extend Figure 4.2 to make up Figure 7.1. The figure is a preliminary attempt to globally organise the results with regard to familiarity and expertise found in this thesis. It is not intended to be a comprehensive model of consumer knowledge, but is instead designed to illustrate the relationship between familiarity and expertise and the role of involvement. The figure is an extrapolation of the results found with regard to involvement and familiarity, on the one hand, and the results reported with regard to familiarity and expertise, on the other hand. Strictly speaking, the total modal was not empirically tested in this thesis. The reader should thus be careful with interpreting the figure in its entirety.

In general, expertise is low if consumers are moderately to highly involved with reading fiction and if their genre preferences are limited to the reading of romance novels and/or mystery novels. Their familiarity with consumer behaviour is, basically, limited to consuming fiction in general, variety-seeking behaviour, talking about books, asking for opinions, and visiting the library. If the highly-involved reader of fiction has a preference for reading literature, familiarity with the previous mentioned behaviours is supplemented with familiarity with having an orientation towards newly-published books, opinion-leadership behaviour, and MDIC. If familiarity with the latter types of

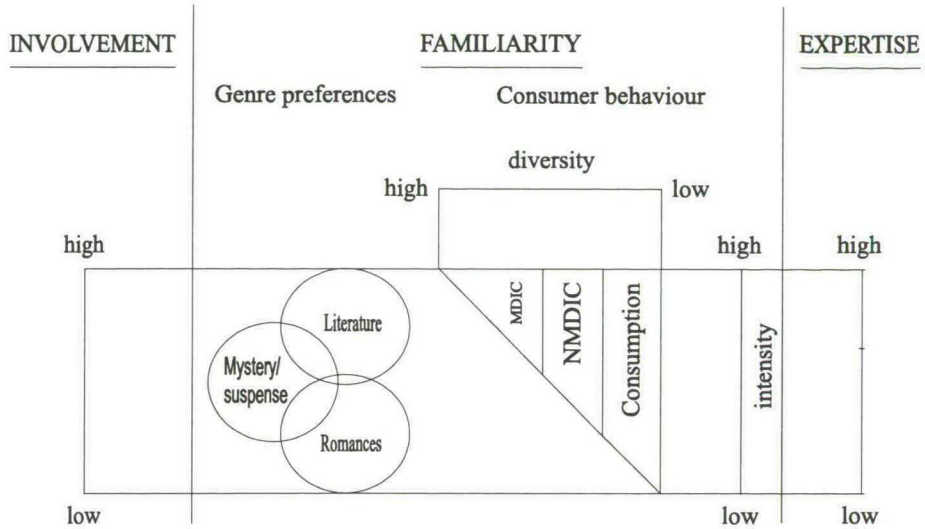

Figure 7.1: The relationship between involvement, familiarity, and expertise

behaviours is high, expertise rapidly increases to high levels.

Elaborate information-gathering behaviour is closely tied to the reading of literature. Consequently, names of authors appears to be a less important or influential information cue for readers of romance and mystery novels. These readers' initial problem space probably will constitute fewer elements in terms of authors, but more elements based on other information cues, such as, e.g., genre classification. This topic is returned to in section 7.7 when discussing the practical implications of the study.

Some deviations in the results of the second and the last study were observed. In Chapter Six, the correlation between reading intensity and expertise was higher (.29) and more significant ($p<.01$) than the correlation reported in Chapter Five. The positive correlation between reading intensity and expertise is probably the result of the overrepresentation of rather intense readers of literature in the last study. These consumers were identified in Chapter Four as being highly involved and more likely to engage in information gathering.

Furthermore, in the last study, the reading of romances and the reading of mystery novels and going to the library did not correlate with expertise ($p>.01$); in the second study the correlations were negative and significant for reading romances ($p<.01$). It was suspected that the consumers in the sample examined in Chapter Five were readers of romances and mystery novels who did not engage (much) in information gathering. This assumption was checked by correlating reading romances and the reading of mystery novels with orientation towards newly-published books, opinion leadership, mass-media usage, and retail visiting in the data set used in Chapter Five. The results showed that the reading of

romances and mystery novels correlated negatively with these consumer behaviours (correlations ranging from -.14 through -.30) whereas the correlations among the information-gathering behaviours were all positive and significant at a level of alpha is one percent (correlations ranging from .24 through .56). In the last study, the correlation between the reading of literature and orientation towards newly-published books, mass-media usage, and retail visiting were positive and significant ($p<.01$), correlations ranging from .38 through .40. The correlations between the reading of romances and mystery novels, on the one hand, and the information-gathering behaviours, on the other, were not significant ($p>.01$). In fact, the correlations were about zero. So far, these results support the synthesis in Figure 7.1.

Finally, in the last study, the correlation between opinion seeking and expertise was slightly higher and significant ($p<.01$) than the correlation reported in Chapter Five. The fact that the correlation was significant at the one percent level, whereas the correlation of .24 found in the second study was not, is probably the result of the larger sample used in the last study. Another explanation is that opinion seeking is typical for both the 'lowly' and the highly-involved reader (see for example Table 4.10). The overrepresentation of highly-involved readers of literature in the last study then, may be responsible for the positive and significant correlation.

Overall, it can be concluded from the regression analyses that information-gathering behaviour, and mass-media usage and retail visiting in particular, is a better predictor of expertise than consumption behaviour. The relationship between familiarity and expertise is non-linear if consumption is restricted to the reading of romances and mystery novels as a result of lower levels of involvement. The relationship between familiarity and expertise is more linear if one is highly involved with fiction, prefers to read literature, and engages in information-gathering behaviour, probably as a result of this involvement (with literature).

The use of composite scores that are a linear combination of all the subindices of familiarity, however, would ignore (some of) the complexity inherent to the consumption and information gathering of consumers, especially in the field of fiction. Different indicators of familiarity within one single dimension (e.g., NMDIC) relate differently to expertise. The reading of literature, being oriented towards newly-published books, acting as an opinion leader, consulting mass-media sources, and visiting retail-outlets are closely related. A high familiarity with these behaviours is demanded for a high expertise. Familiarity that is limited to the reading of romance novels and/or mystery novels, variety seeking, opinion seeking, and library visiting cannot compensate for a low familiarity with any of the former behaviours, even if the degree of familiarity with the latter behaviours is high. Consequently, composite scores based on all familiarity measures cannot be used, whereas limiting familiarity to those measures that are in fact indicative of expertise, would neglect the complexity inherent to the consumption and information gathering of consumers.

7.4.2 THE MODERATING EFFECT OF MOTIVATION AND ABILITY ON THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN FAMILIARITY AND EXPERTISE

It was assumed that motivation and ability moderated the relationship between familiarity and expertise. For both variables it was examined whether they affected the degree and the form of the relationship. This was done by studying correlation coefficients between the consumer knowledge constructs for low versus high levels of motivation and ability, and by examining the significance of the interaction effects between familiarity and the consumer characteristics in regression analyses.

The results showed that motivation did not moderate the degree of the relationship between familiarity and expertise. However, the interaction effects between orientation towards newly-published books and motivation, opinion leadership and motivation, and retail visiting and motivation were significant in the individual regression analyses: motivation moderated the form of the relationship between these familiarity indices and expertise in that the relationship between the latter two constructs was intensified when motivation increased. In the discussion section of Chapter Six, some possible explanations were given for not finding additional interaction effects.

In this thesis, ability was defined as the consumers' skill or proficiency in memorising and evaluating product information cues. It was operationalised as level of education. Level of education was assumed indicative of the extent to which consumers are capable of processing and memorising consumer information. The relationship between familiarity and expertise was also expected to be moderated by ability. Ability did not moderate the degree, nor the form of the relationship between familiarity and expertise. This indicates some potential limitations of the operationalisation used in this study. The results of the regression analyses showed that level of education was a successful predictor of knowing names of authors, rather than a moderator of the relationship between familiarity and expertise. On the one hand, a high level of education entails being schooled in literature (Kraaykamp, 1993). On the other hand, highly-motivated readers of literature who engage in additional information gathering, also know names of authors, independent of their level of education. Knowing authors, therefore, is either the result of literature being taught at school, or reading it under highly motivating conditions. Level of education was meant to measure the extent to which consumers process information more easily, which could result in a better recall of names of authors. However, due to the observation that level of education had a main effect on expertise, no differentiation can be made between knowledge that is the effect of primary or secondary socialisation, or of increased mental abilities to process information more easily or more efficient, or of additional information gathering by more highly-educated readers of fiction. Consequently, this operationalisation of ability may be too general to qualify as an accurate measure of ability as defined in this thesis. It might be responsible for not finding moderating effects. An

objective for future research would be to search for other measures that are indicative of the extent to which consumers are capable of memorising information items that are not indicative of socialisation processes as well. These measures should not interfere with the operationalisation of expertise if the relationship between familiarity and expertise is under investigation.

7.5 LIMITATIONS OF THE PRESENT STUDY

The potential limitations of the studies in this thesis have already been discussed in the paragraphs of concern. Here, some additional ones are addressed. Though the samples have been restricted to readers of fiction, there are some differences with regard to the behaviour of interest in this study from the populations of readers of fiction in the TBO sample. This study should be replicated with a sample that is representative of the population of interest, especially in terms of their involvement with reading fiction as well as the genres being read. The selection procedures used, are all prone to sample bias: only those consumers who were moderately to highly involved in reading fiction had a higher probability of participating in the study due to their interest in the subject. Limiting the sampling procedure to those consumers who have read at least one fiction title in the previous twelve months may have contributed to this bias. Thus, the study should be replicated using a quote sample for which the latter selection criterion is relaxed. Quotes would concern level of involvement, and preferences for romance novels, mystery novels and literature since familiarity and expertise appear to be a function of these variables. The interaction-effects have proven to be explanatory to some extent and need further investigation. For this purpose, quotes should be taken that result in sufficient extreme values on the familiarity measures (X-variables) and motivation and ability (Z-variables or moderators) to increase the power of the t-test and to increase the chance that moderator variables are detected by the statistical technique.

The samples used for the first and second study are relatively small. Since these studies were explorative, this is not too problematic. However, the conclusions drawn with regard to (the dimensionality of) familiarity were mainly based on the data of the first study. To compensate for the relatively small sample size, the analyses were repeated using the larger data set of 214 cases. The results were supported by the data of the large sample. Obviously, researchers should attempt to make use of larger, more representative samples to replicate the studies and confirm our results.

Another limitation is that scales were used that had not been validated in their present form, such as the involvement scale, the familiarity, and the expertise measures. An attempt was made to do so. Our results show a rather coherent pattern, and support the idea that the different scales are reliable as well as valid. However, the present study should be replicated using our measures plus other measures related to ours to determine the construct validity of the scales, and to

determine the robustness of the results.

7.6 SUGGESTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

Some suggestions for future research followed directly from the limitations of this study. Some additional suggestions can be made.

First, fiction titles are acquired frequently and simple rebuying is unlikely to occur. Decision-making regarding cultural products may therefore appear to be inconsistent and complex if researchers limit themselves to studying concrete choice behaviour with regard to a small range of products at time t due to differences in choice sets. Investigating familiarity at a more abstract level has the advantage that variability in consumption and information gathering over time will be levelled out. If decision-making behaviour is studied, it should be remembered that familiarity and expertise may be used in the process of choice differently over time. Consequently, it is advisable to supplement a questionnaire with the familiarity and the expertise measures as used here. In this way, the researcher can establish the correspondence between information gathering in general and the way in which specific sources are used in a specific choice process in particular. In addition, stimulating the use of recall tasks in the study of expertise within complex information environments is desirable. Our recall task revealed that there was a large diversity in the authors named by the respondents[40]: the recall task allows the researcher to capture expertise in all its idiosyncracy. Naming publishing houses and newspapers also had praiseworthy psychometric properties, and could be taken into account as indicators of semantic knowledge regarding fiction to supplement the name of the author. Genre names were not investigated since a pilot study revealed that recalling genres resulted in very idiosyncratic genre labels that were hard to verify and classify. However, these practical and methodological considerations do not mean that names of genres as part of consumer expertise is not important.

Second, this study was limited to fiction. This category of products has certain rather unique properties. This study should be extended with behaviours towards other products in the field of culture such as borrowing or buying videos, going to the movies, or borrowing or buying compact discs. Different genres within each product category should be studied. Since movies and music are more or less characterised by the same decision-making complexity, the same results on familiarity and expertise as those reported here are expected. The study should also be extended with more utilitarian product categories in order to allow for comparisons of the results between the different product categories and to determine the generalisability of our results towards more utilitarian product categories.

Third, as a first step in acquiring consumer knowledge about fiction, a

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[40] Forty-eight respondents recalled about four hundred different authors' names.

restriction on semantic knowledge was considered sufficient, since our interest was in the relationship between familiarity and elements of the problem space. The interest in this thesis was not in decision-making in which the process of (re)structuring the problem space is the object of study. This topic, however, is a challenging supplement. When studying procedural knowledge and decision-making, operationalisations should not be limited to semantic knowledge. Several approaches can be envisaged to study procedural knowledge, e.g., examining the time needed to mentally (re)construct a set of alternatives, or authors, studying differences in the content and size of the set from which consumers make choices, as well as studying the strategies that are used to come to a preference structure. These and other issues are directly related to procedural knowledge as defined in this thesis, and relevant to the concept of consumer expertise.

Finally, consumer knowledge is complex and multidimensional; familiarity, expertise, and their mutual relationship depend on consumer characteristics of which involvement, motivation, and ability have been studied here. Moreover, when studying consumer behaviour and consumer knowledge, this conceptually distinctive nature of familiarity and expertise and the influence of involvement should be recognised. Figure 7.1 depicted a global synthesis of the results. It would be interesting and challenging to study this model in more detail in future research.

7.7 PRACTICAL IMPLICATIONS

The present study has some practical implications relevant to marketeers who would like to reach the reader of fiction. Expertise was operationalised as knowledge of author names. Of course, this is a modest and very specific interpretation of consumer expertise. However, favourite authors become brand names (Leemans, 1994) and the book trade tries to position authors as such. Our results show that these efforts will be successful under a very specific condition: the target group to which such publicity is addressed, must have a strong detachment to books; moreover, these consumers must be active in informing their peer group about what (new) releases are worth reading.

The observation that motivation strengthens the relationship between opinion leadership and expertise implies that, to effectively and efficiently make use of the influential role opinion leaders play in the process of choice (by others), marketing communication and information should be concentrated on highly motivated readers of fiction who make use of additional sources of information. These opinion leaders consult mass media sources and frequently visit the retail setting. These information sources thus lend themselves extremely well to make an appeal to this select group of consumers. Instead of simply advertising fiction in the media and retail settings, a direct appeal should be made to opinion leaders to stress their potential role in advising other consumers and to stimulate this

behaviour towards other consumers; the effect of MDIC on highly-involved readers of fiction can be expanded with free interpersonal communication among this group of readers.

However, when consumers are less involved with fiction books, they not only have an increased preference for romance and mystery novels to literature, they also remember a small number of authors. This raises the question of whether opinion leaders - who usually read literature - are effective in guiding less-involved people in their choices. Although it was not investigated whether the recommendations made by expert readers were actually followed by (less-involved) readers, it is, of course, not evident that an opinion leader's advice will impact the choice behaviour of his or her (less-involved) addressees. Our question also pertains to the effectiveness of the information given by the book trade on the choice behaviour of readers of romance and/or mystery novels. This information is strongly focussed on authors, i.e., on their achievements.

Under the condition of lower involvement, familiarity is more likely to be limited to library visits, and the reading of romance and mystery novels with little or no additional external search; in the condition of high involvement, library and retail visits may supplement each other. Since familiarity with information gathering is a function of high levels of involvement and related to expertise, the results in this thesis suggest that there are differences in the amount of expertise between less-involved consumers who are more likely to obtain their books from the library and the highly-involved readers of fiction who frequently visit the retail setting. Readers of literature have the largest repertoire of authors' names. But readers of romance novels and readers of mystery novels structurally have lower levels of involvement, motivation, and expertise. It seems their preferences most primarily concern book genres. In deciding what books to acquire, they may concentrate on their favourite genre but a further differentiation of this segment in terms of books by author X or author Y does not seem to be made in a comprehensive way. If there is little involvement, a reader of romance or mystery novels might be guided by the characteristics shared with other epitomes of the same genre, e.g., detection, crime, and suspense in the case of mystery novels; love and passion in the case of romances. The way in which such general characteristics are handled by individual authors, is apparently not a matter of concern to consumers with a low level of involvement, familiarity, and expertise.

Our findings suggest that the low-involvement group uses public libraries as a primary channel for acquiring books. They are borrowers of books, rather than buyers. As far as the low-involvement group is concerned, the question might be asked to what extent public libraries help their users to facilitate choice. The choice process seems to be focussed on specific categories of books. A focus within these genres on books by specific authors is apparently absent. The question then arises how library visitors make choices. The genre classification may lead these consumers to a specific bookshelf. Since reading intensity and library visits were highly correlated, prior experiences with fiction titles by the

same author might be an influential source, as well as information on the cover. Perhaps these consumers decide more 'on the spot' by focussing on the name of the author most recently read or information on the cover of the book. In the recent past, some effort has been made to develop a computer system in which consumers can enter the title of a book they liked. The system then presents the consumer with a list of titles that are similar to the one he/she read. Similarity classifications can be made, for example, at the level of textual properties such as style of writing, or at the content level. Fiction titles from other genres can be suggested that are known to relate to the genre to which a particular book belongs. This system already exists for movies, and the results in this thesis suggest that it will be of use in helping the less-involved reader of fiction in making choices. Further development of the system is therefore recommended.

7.8 FINAL CONCLUSION

This study makes at least three contributions to research on consumer knowledge. First, the results show that consumer familiarity is a multidimensional construct: the use of composite scores that are a linear combination of the subindices of consumption, NMDIC, and MDIC would ignore (some of) the complexity inherent to the relationship between consumption and information-gathering behaviours of consumers, on the one hand, and consumer knowledge, on the other, especially in the field of fiction. Second, by examining familiarity under conditions of low versus high involvement, and by correlating the familiarity measures with expertise, a more complex relationship was found between familiarity and expertise than had been assumed in previous studies employing a single index of familiarity. Finally, the results provide evidence for the notion that the relationship between familiarity and expertise must be studied in combination with a wider range of (moderator) variables, of which involvement and motivation have proven to be the most salient.

SAMENVATTING (Summary in Dutch)

CONSUMENTENVERTROUWDHEID EN -EXPERTISE: EEN EXPLORATIEVE STUDIE NAAR LEZERS VAN FICTIE

Doel en context van het onderzoek

Beschouwd vanuit het informatieverwerkingsparadigma, is consumentenkennis - gedefinieerd als een subset van die informatie die relevant is voor het functioneren van een consument in een marktomgeving - een effectief instrument voor het structureren van het overweldigende en gevarieerde informatie-aanbod en het vereenvoudigen van het keuzeproces in de complexe informatie-omgeving van fictieboeken. Het snel wisselende boekenaanbod heeft echter tot gevolg dat deze consumentenkennis snel veroudert. Dit maakt fictie tot een interessant - maar tot dusver ongeëxploreerd - onderzoeksobject dat zich zeer goed leent voor onderzoek naar consumentenkennis in complexe keuzesituaties. In dit proefschrift gaat de aandacht uit naar consumentenkennis die relevant is voor het structureren van de informatie-omgeving en het vereenvoudigen van het keuzeproces in een complexe informatie-omgeving.

Er is veel onderzoek verricht dat de opvatting ondersteunt dat consumentenkennis over een bepaald domein consumentengedrag beïnvloedt. Onderzoek naar de aard van consumentenkennis heeft aangetoond dat consumentenkennis complex en multidimensioneel is. Een breed geaccepteerde, bidimensionele opvatting maakt onderscheid tussen vertrouwdheid enerzijds en expertise anderzijds (Alba en Hutchinson, 1987). Vertrouwdheid is gedefinieerd - in termen van gedrag - als het aantal productgerelateerde ervaringen dat de consument heeft verzameld. Productgerelateerde ervaringen worden ruim gedefinieerd en omvatten blootstellingen aan advertenties, informatiezoekgedrag, interacties met verkopers, keuze- en beslissingsgedrag. Expertise wordt omschreven - in termen van processen - als het vermogen om productgerelateerde taken succesvol uit te voeren en omvat zowel de cognitieve kennisstructuur als de cognitieve processen die benodigd zijn om deze taken succesvol uit te voeren. In het onderzoek wordt de productgerelateerde taak en expertise beperkt tot respectievelijk beslissingsnemen en de cognitieve kennisstructuur.

Productgerelateerd gedrag vormt een noodzakelijke voorwaarde voor het verkrijgen van vertrouwdheid met en expertise omtrent fictie en als consumentenkennis wordt verkregen, is deze afhankelijk van het soort gedrag dat aan deze kennis ten grondslag ligt. Vaak wordt verondersteld dat een toename in vertrouwdheid samengaat met een toename in expertise. Studies wijzen echter uit dat een strikt lineaire relatie tussen vertrouwdheid met fictie en expertise in twijfel kan worden getrokken. Het aantal gecumuleerde productgerelateerde ervaringen zal dan slechts een indicatie geven voor de mate waarin consumenten informatie (uit de eerste hand) geïnternaliseerd hebben. De

veronderstelling dat vertrouwdheid en expertise conceptueel orthogonaal zijn, wordt door onderzoekers benadrukt door te stellen dat iemand een aanzienlijke vertrouwdheid met een product of activiteit kan hebben, maar niet over expertise hoeft te beschikken. Vice versa kan een consument ook aanzienlijke expertise hebben zonder dat er een grote vertrouwdheid is in termen van product-gerelateerde ervaringen.

Ondanks deze overwegingen wordt er in de literatuur weinig aandacht besteed aan de vraag of er verschillende aspecten van vertrouwdheid kunnen worden onderscheiden die al dan niet verschillend relateren aan expertise. De aanname van een ongedifferentieerde lineaire relatie tussen consumentenvertrouwdheid en expertise nodigt de onderzoeker niet uit om aandacht aan deze vraag te besteden. Vertrouwdheid wordt vaak beschouwd als een unidimensioneel construct. Vanuit de aanname dat de expertise evenredig toeneemt met de vertrouwdheid, suggereert de definitie van vertrouwdheid van Alba en Hutchinson (1987) dat het aantal productgerelateerde gedragingen bepalend is voor de expertise en niet het soort gedragingen. Het leeuwendeel van het onderzoek richt zich daarnaast op de impact van consumentenkennis op het informatiezoekgedrag. Het niet (h)erkennen dat informatiezoekgedrag mede de basis vormt voor vertrouwdheid en daarmee indirect onderdeel vormt van consumentenkennis, kan tot gevolg hebben dat men informatiezoekgedrag tracht te voorspellen met gedeeltelijke en gebrekkige operationalisaties van consumentenkennis. Dit zal de validiteit en de betrouwbaarheid van de resultaten verlagen.

Consumentenbeslissingsgedrag betreffende fictie

Na de voorgaande toelichting van de probleemstelling volgt een verdere afbakening van het onderzoeksobject, namelijk fictie. De beslissingsomgeving van fictie onderscheidt zich van die van meer traditionele onderzoeksobjecten in de consumentengedragsliteratuur in die zin dat het een zeer complexe informatieomgeving is. Deze complexe informatieomgeving zal op haar beurt de complexiteit van de beslissingstaak bepalen. Aangezien consumentenkennis contingent is op het concrete consumentengedrag, zullen er verschillen optreden in consumentenkennis, afhankelijk van de wijze waarop consumenten omgaan met de complexiteit van de beslissingstaak. Deze consumentenkennis zal op haar beurt weer bepalen hoe de consument omgaat met de complexiteit van toekomstige beslissingstaken.

Op basis van de literatuur worden twee soorten karakteristieken van de beslissingsomgeving betreffende fictie onderscheiden die de complexiteit van de beslissingstaak zullen verhogen: karakteristieken van de markt en karakteristieken van het product. Deze toegenomen complexiteit zal het consumentengedrag van lezers van fictie zodanig beïnvloeden dat een unidimensionele opvatting van vertrouwdheid en een (ongedifferentieerde) lineaire relatie tussen vertrouwdheid en expertise in twijfel kan worden getrokken.

Met betrekking tot de eerste soort karakteristieken wordt als eerste het aantal beschikbare productalternatieven onderscheiden. Het aanbod van fictie is groot en gefragmenteerd. Ondanks het feit dat zowel de vraag als het aanbod van literatuur het grootst is, hebben ook romantische fictie en spannende boeken een aanzienlijk leespubliek. Aangezien mensen een beperkte capaciteit en gelegenheid - en vaak ook een beperkte motivatie - hebben om informatie te verwerken, zullen de cultuurconsumenten selecties uit het aanbod moeten maken met behulp van een beperkt informatiezoekgedrag en vereenvoudigende beslissingsregels. Als een gevolg hiervan zal niet alle beschikbare informatie worden verwerkt en zullen niet alle alternatieven worden overwogen. Dit heeft tot gevolg dat er grote individuele verschillen in consumentenkennis - zowel in de vertrouwdheid als de expertise - zullen ontstaan.

Een tweede karakteristiek van de markt betreft het snel wisselende aanbod van fictietitels. Het snel wisselende aanbod heeft tot gevolg dat de productgerelateerde kennis waarover de consument beschikt, snel verouderd. De consument wordt hierdoor periodiek geconfronteerd met de complexiteit van de beslissingsomgeving. De consument kan deze complexiteit terugbrengen door zich op regelmatige basis te informeren over het aanbod, door het beslissingsproces volledig opnieuw te doorlopen bij iedere nieuwe keuzesituatie en/of door gebruik te maken van vereenvoudigende beslissingsregels. Afhankelijk van het concrete gedrag dat consumenten ten toon spreiden om te komen tot een keuze, zullen ook de vertrouwdheid en de expertise inhoudelijk verschillen tussen individuen.

Als karakteristieken van het product zèlf worden de compleetheid van informatie en de ongelijkheid van alternatieven onderscheiden. Allereerst is daar de compleetheid van de informatie. Boeken zijn hedonistische producten waarvoor de consumptie gericht is op het verkrijgen van multisensorische, emotionele gewaarwordingen en fantasieën. De consumptie-ervaring is een eigenschap van fictietitels die centraal staat. De te verwachten leesbeleving kan echter alleen maar vastgesteld worden nádat het boek is geconsumeerd. Doordat de leeservaring centraal staat in de consumptie van fictie maar tegelijkertijd moeilijk is te beoordelen als het gevolg van deze 'incompleetheid' van de informatie, wordt het maken van een keuze bemoeilijkt.

De ongelijkheid van alternatieven betreft de vaststelling dat, in technische zin, geen twee fictie-titels gelijk zijn; de tevredenstellende consumptie van één titel biedt geen garantie dat een andere titel met vergelijkbare waarneembare eigenschappen - die wèl beoordeeld kunnen worden voorafgaand aan de consumptie, bijvoorbeeld behorende tot hetzelfde genre of geschreven door dezelfde auteur - zal leiden tot een tevredenstellende consumptie-ervaring. Met andere woorden, de uniciteit van iedere fictietitel heeft tot gevolg dat een eerdere positieve consumptie-ervaring slechts in beperkte mate aanknopingspunten geeft voor een te maken keuze in de toekomst. Gegeven dat fictietitels doorgaans met een relatief hoge frequentie worden verworven, zullen consumenten keer op keer geconfronteerd worden met een relatief complexe beslissingstaak. De wijze

waarop ze hiermee omgaan, zal wederom de vertrouwdheid en de expertise als zodanig beïnvloeden.

Gegeven de bovenstaande overwegingen op basis van de karakteristieken van de markt en fictietitels zèlf, kan een unidimensionele opvatting van vertrouwdheid en een ongedifferentieerd lineair verband met expertise dan ook niet zondermeer aangenomen worden. Verwacht wordt dat deze karakteristieken het consumptie- en informatiezoekgedrag zodanig zullen beïnvloeden dat er grote verschillen in (de dimensionaliteit van) vertrouwdheid enerzijds en expertise anderzijds zullen optreden. De eerste twee vraagstellingen luiden dan: wat is de dimensionaliteit van vertrouwdheid met fictie en wat is de relatie tussen de vertrouwdheid met fictie en expertise?

De rol van consumentenkennis in het beslissingsproces van lezers van fictie

Consumentenkennis speelt een belangrijke rol in de omgang met de complexe beslissingstaak omtrent fictie in die zin dat de lezer van fictie zijn of haar (ervarings)kennis kan inzetten om gevolgtrekkingen te maken met betrekking tot de te verwachten leesbeleving op basis van een beperkt aantal beschikbare productinformatie-items zoals titel, naam van de auteur en de samenvatting op de achterzijde van een boekomslag. De literatuur wijst uit dat de selectie en de taxatie van productinformatie-items, alsmede de selectie van informatiebronnen, beïnvloed wordt door de reeds aanwezige consumentenkennis. Indien deze kennis niet toereikend is, kan ze worden aangevuld met informatie uit interpersoonlijke communicatie en marketeergedomineerde communicatie (massamediabronnen en de winkel- of bibliotheeksetting).

De selectie van externe informatiebronnen wordt allereerst beïnvloed door de waargenomen gelijkheid in smaak. Consumenten zullen bijvoorbeeld die mensen aanspreken of de aanbevelingen van die recensenten overnemen waarvan ze weten of vermoeden dat deze dezelfde smaak hebben (bijvoorbeeld op het niveau van genres). De informatie moet niet alleen bruikbaar zijn, gegeven het doel van de consument, ze moet ook beschikbaar zijn. Reeds in het geheugen aanwezige kennis is doorgaans beschikbaar en toegankelijk op het moment dat een keuze gemaakt gaat worden. Deze beschikbaarheid is doorgaans lager voor interpersoonlijke communicatie- en massamediabronnen. De hoeveelheid inspanning die vereist is om informatie van deze bronnen te verwerven, speelt eveneens een rol. Interne kennis is een redelijk betrouwbare en kostenbesparende optie; interpersoonlijke communicatie vraagt meer inspanningen waarbij een minimale hoeveelheid inspanning is vereist om bijvoorbeeld de naam van een auteur of titel op te schrijven of te memoriseren. Massamediabronnen vragen de meeste inspanningen, zowel fysiek als mentaal, in die zin dat inspanningen verricht dienen te worden om een print medium (bijvoorbeeld, krant of tijdschrift) te verwerven waarna het print medium gelezen dient te worden. De factoren die de bereidheid bepalen om fysieke en mentale inspanningen te verrichten ten behoeve van het beslissingsproces in het algemeen en

informatieverwerving in het bijzonder, zijn betrokkenheid, motivatie en capaciteit.

Consumentenkararkteristieken die de consumentenkennis omtrent fictie beïnvloeden

De mate waarin de consument verondersteld wordt bereid te zijn om fysieke inspanningen te verrichten ten behoeve van het (optimaliseren van het) beslissingsproces, wordt afhankelijk gesteld van de betrokkenheid met het lezen van fictie: hoe hoger de betrokkenheid, hoe hoger de algemene bereidheid om uitgebreid te zoeken. Productklassebetrokkenheid kan dan voldoende zijn om grote verschillen in consumptie- en informatiezoekgedrag teweeg te brengen en daarmee verschillen in (de dimensionaliteit van) vertrouwdheid. Een volgende vraagstelling luidt dan: wat is het effect van betrokkenheid met fictie op de vertrouwdheid met fictie?

De mate waarin consumenten vervolgens expertise verwerven aan de hand van deze zoek(- en consumptie)inspanningen - ofwel de mate waarin de waargenomen product-gerelateerde informatie wordt getransformeerd in een cognitieve representatie in het geheugen - wordt afhankelijk gesteld van de motivatie en de capaciteit om informatie mentaal (diep) te verwerken en op te slaan in het geheugen. Consumenten moeten enerzijds beschikken over de behoefte of de bereidheid om productinformatie uit de productomgeving diep te verwerken. Anderzijds dienen zij over de vaardigheid of de bedrevenheid te beschikken om productinformatie (bijvoorbeeld auteursnaam) te memoriseren en te evalueren. Als zowel de motivatie als de capaciteit hoog zijn, is het waarschijnlijker dat er een diepere mentale verwerking van informatie plaatsvindt. Hierdoor neemt de kans toe dat er geheugeneffecten optreden; een toename in vertrouwdheid zal in dat geval samengaan met een toename in expertise. De laatste vraagstelling in deze studie luidt dan: wat is het effect van motivatie en capaciteit op de relatie tussen vertrouwdheid en expertise?

Consumentenkennis in het beslissingsproces van lezers van fictie: Een raamwerk

Ten behoeve van de beantwoording van de vraagstellingen, worden in hoofdstuk 2 de cultuursociologische benadering en de informatieverwerkingsbenadering bestudeerd om inzicht te krijgen in het concept consumentenkennis en om te achterhalen hoe deze kennis samenhangt met consumenten(beslissings)gedrag. Bourdieus habitas en geïnternaliseerd cultureel kapitaal en Ganzeboom's informatietheorie van cultuurparticipatie vormen onderdeel van de cultuursociologische benadering en onderstrepen het standpunt dat culturele kennis en ervaringen cultureel gedrag beïnvloeden en het keuzeproces met betrekking tot culturele producten sturen. Omdat de theorieën ontwikkeld zijn om andersoortige onderzoeksvragen te beantwoorden, wordt geen positie

ingenomen met betrekking tot consumentenkennis in een beslissingsomgeving. De theorieën doen geen uitspraak over hoe vertrouwdheid met fictie zich conceptueel onderscheid van expertise en hoe vertrouwdheid gerelateerd is aan expertise. Als zodanig leent de cultuursociologische benadering zich niet voor het invullen van consumentenkennis en het bepalen van de rol die deze kennis speelt in het beslissingsproces.

Een informatieverwerkingsbenadering: Consumentenkennis en beslissingsgedrag

Vanuit het informatieverwerkingsparadigma kan worden belicht hoe consumentenkennis enerzijds wordt vergaard in het keuzeproces en hoe deze kennis anderzijds wordt ingezet in een toekomstig keuzeproces. De stelling wordt ingenomen dat beslissingsgedrag wordt gestuurd door de consumentenkennis die ingezet kan worden om een mentale representatie van het keuzeprobleem in een probleemruimte te construeren. De elementen in de mentale representatie bestaan uit keuzealternatieven. Consumentenkennis vormt de basis voor de inhoud van de probleemruimte in die zin dat zij bepaalt welke keuzealternatieven aanvankelijk in de probleemruimte zullen worden opgenomen. De structuur (de alternatieven en hun onderlinge voorkeurrelaties) van de probleemruimte bepaalt vervolgens de (volgorde van de) handelingsreeksen die nodig zijn om het keuzeprobleem op te lossen, dit wil zeggen, om te komen tot een voorkeur voor één alternatief boven de andere. Informatie die verzameld wordt als gevolg van deze handelingsreeksen, leidt tot een herstructurering van de probleemruimte en een verfijning van de definiëring van de productalternatieven en hun onderlinge voorkeurrelaties.

In het voorgaande proces wordt doorgaans verondersteld dat consumenten(beslissings)gedrag wordt aangestuurd door probleemherkenning: de consument wil een keuzeprobleem oplossen. In een aangepast beslissingsprocesmodel wordt verondersteld dat consumenten die regelmatig lezen, ook regelmatig kunnen zoeken naar informatie zonder dat er probleemherkenning aan voorafgaat en zonder dat er een probleemruimte wordt geconstrueerd. Deze lezers worden *ongoing searchers* genoemd en zijn doorgaans meer dan gemiddeld gemotiveerd om informatie te zoeken en te evalueren.

De motivatie is een belangrijke variabele die consumptie- en informatiezoekgedrag beïnvloedt. Motivatie wordt gedefinieerd als 'doelgerichte *arousal*' (Park en Mittal, 1985): afhankelijk van zijn of haar doelen, zal de consument gemotiveerd zijn om te zoeken naar informatie die relevant is voor het bereiken van zijn of haar doelen. Men kan over de 'doelgerichte arousal' spreken in termen van drijfveren, wensen of verlangens die een reeks gebeurtenissen aansturen (Bayton, 1958). Geschikte interne of externe stimuli kunnen de consument activeren wat resulteert in een staat van fysiologische arousal.

Daar motivatie een procesvariabele is die moeilijk te meten is in een natuurlijke setting, wordt verondersteld dat de betrokkenheid met fictie een dispositie vormt om stimuli te herkennen die de consument als responssysteem in meer of mindere mate activeren. Betrokkenheid is daarmee indicatief voor de mate waarin consumenten geneigd zullen zijn om te handelen in de marktomgeving. Betrokkenheid met fictie is gedefinieerd als de waargenomen persoonlijke relevantie van (het lezen van) fictie in termen van zijn of haar persoonlijke waarden, doelen en zelf-concept. Deze betrokkenheid resulteert in een toegenomen gevoeligheid om situaties te herkennen die relevant zijn voor (het lezen van) fictie: een toegenomen aantal situaties zal de consument motiveren om consumptie- en informatiezoekgedrag op gang te brengen. Betrokkenheid is daarnaast een eigenschap van het individu die betrekkelijk stabiel is over situaties heen. Ondanks het feit dat het gedrag van individuen kan verschillen in individuele situaties, kan worden gesteld dat - over alle individuele situaties in de tijd heen - een toename in betrokkenheid leidt tot een toename in de frequentie en de intensiteit waarmee de consument is gemotiveerd te handelen.

Er zijn weinig concrete studies over consumptie- en extern informatiezoekgedrag met als doel consumenten te groeperen op basis van overeenkomsten in de wijze waarop ze consumeren en informatie zoeken. Consumenten vertonen echter grote verschillen in hun consumptie- en informatiezoekpatronen met als gevolg dat er ook grote verschillen zullen zijn in de mate van vertrouwdheid met (informatie over) het product, hier fictie. Als zodanig wordt verondersteld dat vertrouwdheid met fictie een multi-dimensioneel construct is (Propositie 1).

Er werd reeds gesteld dat, als de betrokkenheid van een consument hoog is, er significant meer situaties zullen zijn die de motivatie initiëren om fictietitels te consumeren of om informatie te zoeken (op een *ongoing search* basis). Dit heeft tot gevolg dat hoogbetrokken consumenten van fictie een grotere mate van vertrouwdheid zullen hebben: de mate van de consumentenvertrouwdheid neemt toe met de betrokkenheid (Propositie 2). Het consumentengedrag van hoogbetrokken lezers van fictie wordt waarschijnlijk ook gekenmerkt door een grotere mate van ongoing search en als een gevolg van hun grotere dispositie om kansen (situaties) te herkennen waarmee ze hun doelen betreffende fictie kunnen bereiken, zullen ze ook een breder consumentengedragspatroon vertonen: de structuur van de consumentenvertrouwdheid verschilt al naargelang de betrokkenheid (Propositie 3).

Een informatieverwerkingsbenadering: Consumentenkennis en geheugenmodellen

Aangezien het zojuist besproken informatieverwerkingsparadigma niet expliciet is in het definiëren en het beschrijven van consumentenkennis, dient aandacht te worden besteed aan consumentenkennis als onderdeel van het geheugen: wat is

kennis en hoe kunnen vertrouwdheid en expertise hierin geplaatst worden. Er wordt onderscheid gemaakt tussen geheugenstructuren enerzijds en de processen die zich voordoen om informatie in het geheugen te bewerken anderzijds. Allereerst wordt de structuur van het geheugen besproken om te komen tot een eenduidige conceptualisatie van consumentenkennis.

Het onderscheid tussen een korte-termijn of werkgeheugen en een lange-termijn geheugen wordt als uitgangspunt genomen voor het conceptueel raamwerk. In het werkgeheugen vindt de (her)structurering van de eerder besproken probleemruimte plaats. De informatie waarmee de consument als informatieverwerker aan het werken is tijdens de probleemruimte (her)structurering, is aanwezig in het actieve geheugen. In het lange-termijn geheugen bevinden zich associatieve netwerken met episodische, semantische en procedurele kennis. Deze kennis is niet actief maar kan in het werkgeheugen opgehaald worden waardoor deze wel actief wordt. Episodische kennis betreft autobiografische informatie over specifieke gebeurtenissen, die gedefinieerd zijn naar plaats en in de tijd. Semantische kennis omvat georganiseerde kennis over de wereld die niet is gebonden aan plaats en tijd en procedurele kennis betreft kennis omtrent procedures en vaardigheden.

Indien de onderzoeker vraagt naar productgerelateerde gedragingen die geaccumuleerd zijn door de consument (i.e. vertrouwdheid), zal deze consument episodische informatie uit het lange-termijn geheugen ophalen om de vraag te beantwoorden. Als zodanig wordt verondersteld dat het soort en de hoeveelheid episodische kennis het soort en de mate van vertrouwdheid reflecteert die de consument heeft met het betreffende product of de betreffende activiteit. Semantische kennis bestaat voornamelijk uit de feiten die mensen weten over een bepaald domein terwijl de procedurele kennis (cognitieve) procedures omvat die ingezet kunnen worden voor de bewerking van deze feiten (in het licht van de probleemruimte). De aanname wordt gemaakt dat, in de context van de keuzesituatie, semantische kennis de elementen van de probleemruimte betreft, terwijl de procedurele kennis verwijst naar het vermogen om de probleemruimte te (re)construeren in het keuzeproces. Als zodanig wordt consumentenkennis gedefinieerd als het geheel aan productgerelateerde episodische, semantische en procedurele kennis dat in het geheugen aanwezig is op tijdstip t en dat kan worden ingezet om een probleemruimte te (her)construeren op tijdstip t+1. De expertisecomponent bestaat uit de mogelijke elementen van de probleemruimte, alsook het vermogen om deze probleemruimte te (her)structuren. Vertrouwdheid komt tot uitdrukking in episodische kennis. In deze studie wordt de te bestuderen consumentenkennis beperkt tot episodische en semantische kennis omdat de aandacht is gericht op de relatie tussen vertrouwdheid en die semantische kennis die ten grondslag ligt aan de inhoud van de probleemruimte in termen van de elementen.

In de context van dit proefschrift gaat vertrouwdheid dan samen met expertise als minimaal episodische en semantische kennis worden opgeslagen in het geheugen en aan elkaar worden gekoppeld; het maken van een persoonlijke

connectie tussen informatie op het episodische niveau en het semantische niveau zal de consument in een keuzesituatie helpen in het lokaliseren van de relevante episodische informatie (bijvoorbeeld de herinnering dat een boek van een betreffende auteur beviel) door middel van (semantische) sleutelwoorden of *product cues* (bijvoorbeeld, de naam van de auteur).

Een voorwaarde om informatie op te slaan in het geheugen en om associaties tussen episodische en semantische kennis te maken, is diepte van verwerking: hoe dieper de verwerking, hoe groter de kans dat er geheugeneffecten optreden en hoe groter de kans dat er associaties worden gemaakt tussen episodische en semantische kennis. De diepte van verwerking wordt afhankelijk gesteld van de motivatie en de capaciteit van de consument om informatie (diep) te verwerken. Motivatie werd eerder als een procesvariabele omschreven die afhankelijk is van situationele variabelen. Daarom wordt gesteld dat de mate waarin een individu gemotiveerd is om informatie mentaal diep te verwerken, afhankelijk is van zowel de betrokkenheid met het lezen van fictie als zijn of haar *need for cognition*. Need for cognition is een persoonlijkheidseigenschap die vaak genoemd wordt naast de betrokkenheid als een factor die de motivatie beïnvloedt om informatie diep te verwerken. Het verwijst naar de geneigdheid van het individu om deel te nemen aan en genoegen te scheppen in cognitieve inspanningen. Betrokkenheid en need for cognition worden als indicatoren genomen voor de motivatie om informatie mentaal te verwerken. Er wordt enerzijds verondersteld dat hoge niveaus van need for cognition niet kunnen compenseren voor lage niveaus van betrokkenheid. Als de betrokkenheid laag is, zal ook een hoge need for cognition de motivatie om informatie (diep te verwerken) niet kunnen verhogen. Anderzijds kan een hoge betrokkenheid wel compenseren voor een lage need for cognition. Als zowel de betrokkenheid als de need for cognition groot is, wordt verwacht dat de laatste het effect van betrokkenheid op motivatie versterkt. Omdat een interactie-effect wordt verwacht, wordt het product van betrokkenheid met need for cognition genomen om de motivatievariabele in deze studie te construeren. De propositie wordt afgeleid dat de relatie tussen vertrouwdheid en expertise verandert als een functie van de motivatie: motivatie modereert de relatie tussen vertrouwdheid en expertise. De relatie wordt sterker als de motivatie toeneemt (Propositie 4).

De capaciteit verwijst naar het vermogen om informatie mentaal (diep) te verwerken. Een gebrek aan capaciteit impliceert doorgaans dat de relevante kennisstructuren in het lange-termijn geheugen die noodzakelijk zijn om informatie te begrijpen, te memoriseren en mentaal te bewerken, ontbreken of niet toegankelijk zijn. Om te voorkomen dat capaciteit conceptueel overlapt met expertise, wordt het effect van capaciteit op de relatie tussen vertrouwdheid en expertise bestudeerd door opleidingsniveau als indicator te nemen. De assumptie wordt gemaakt dat hoger-opgeleiden meer getraind zijn in het memoriseren van, het elaboreren op en het herinneren van informatie als een gevolg van hun opleiding. De propositie wordt afgeleid dat capaciteit de relatie tussen vertrouwdheid en expertise modereert: de relatie wordt sterker naarmate de

capaciteit toeneemt (Propositie 5).

Onderzoeksmethode en indicatoren voor consumentenvertrouwdheid en -expertise

In hoofdstuk 3 worden de gehanteerde onderzoeksmethode en de indicatoren voor vertrouwdheid en expertise besproken. Omdat de interesse is gelegen in de (inter)relaties tussen vertrouwdheid en expertise op tijdstip t onder verschillende condities van betrokkenheid, motivatie en capaciteit, wordt voor de onderzoeksmethode de keuze gemaakt voor correlationele studies.

Naar aanleiding van een kort literatuuroverzicht van de indicatoren en de operationalisaties van consumentenkennis, worden de volgende indicatoren voor vertrouwdheid en expertise onderscheiden.

Indicatoren voor consumentenvertrouwdheid

Er wordt een onderscheid gemaakt tussen de intensiteit en de inhoud van vertrouwdheid. Als gevolg van psychologische testkarakteristieken wordt de intensiteit van vertrouwdheid gemeten met behulp van de hoogte van de scores van de respondent op de vragenlijst-items. Om vertrouwdheid met fictie accurater te meten, dient een veelheid aan verschillende consumentengedragingen bevraagd te worden die ten grondslag liggen aan deze vertrouwdheid. Met betrekking tot de (multi-dimensionele) inhoud van de vertrouwdheid worden twee categorieën gedragsindicatoren onderscheiden: consumptiegerelateerd en informatiezoekgerelateerd. Vier soorten consumptiegerelateerde indicatoren worden voorgedragen, namelijk de leesintensiteit van fictie in het algemeen, genrevoorkeuren, de georiënteerdheid op recent gepubliceerde boeken en variatiezoekgedrag. Deze worden achtereenvolgens kort toegelicht.

De eerste indicator betreft de leesintensiteit in het algemeen, ongeacht de genrevoorkeuren. Mensen zijn geneigd om een schatting te maken van de stabiliteit van hun gedrag in het verleden op basis van meer recente ervaringen om zo te komen tot een schatting van de frequentie van het gedrag in het verleden. Daarnaast is het aannemelijk dat meer recent verzamelde consumentenkennis het beslissingsproces in belangrijke mate beïnvloedt als een gevolg van het feit dat deze nog vers in het geheugen ligt. Gegeven deze overwegingen, zal de aandacht zich richten op het meer recente leesgedrag waarbij de nadruk ligt op het leesgedrag van de afgelopen twaalf maanden.

De tweede indicator betreft de voorkeur voor literatuur, romantische boeken, dan wel spannende boeken. Indien men verschillen in consumentenkennis wil exploreren, al naar gelang de genrevoorkeuren, dient men een genre-indeling te hanteren die iedereen begrijpt, ongeacht de consumentenkennis. De bovenstaande indeling voldoet aan deze eis. De proporties gelezen literatuur, romantische en spannende boeken worden vermenigvuldigd met de

leesintensiteitsschaal.

De derde indicator betreft de mate waarin men zich oriënteert op recent gepubliceerde boeken. Deze georiënteerdheid wordt beschouwd als een aspect van vertrouwdheid dat gerelateerd is aan expertise: ze impliceert een bewustzijn van de meest recent gepubliceerde boeken als gevolg van een grotere vertrouwdheid met het (regelmatig) gebruiken van informatiebronnen die gekenmerkt worden door een hoge mate van actualiteit.

De laatste indicator, namelijk variatiezoekgedrag, richt zich op de geneigdheid om variatie in het consumptiegedrag aan te brengen door regelmatig te wisselen van auteur, thema of genre. Variatiezoekgedrag kenmerkt zich als zodanig door een gevarieerd consumptie- en informatiezoekgedrag.

Informatiezoekgerelateerde vertrouwdheidsindicatoren betreffen niet-marketeergedomineerde interpersoonlijke communicatie (NMIC) en marketeergedomineerde onpersoonlijke communicatie (MOC). De eerste categorie (NMIC) omvat de indicatoren opinieleiderschap, opiniezoeken en interpersoonlijke communicatie. Het conceptuele onderscheid tussen deze drie indicatoren is gebaseerd op het feit dat opinieleiders andere opinieleiders en/of -zoekers kunnen beïnvloeden, maar dat deze opinieleiders op hun beurt ook de rol van opiniezoeker kunnen aannemen. Binnen dezelfde productcategorie kan een opinieleider zich als opiniezoeker opstellen als gevolg van een grote betrokkenheid met de productcategorie. Als het een andere productcategorie betreft, kan de opinieleider opiniezoeker worden waarbij actief informatie wordt gezocht om waargenomen (financiële) risico's en/of zoektijd of -inspanningen te reduceren. Het zoekgedrag is dan het gevolg van een gebrek aan consumentenkennis. Aangezien communicatie omtrent fictie kan plaatsvinden zonder dat er expliciet advies wordt gegeven of gevraagd, wordt interpersoonlijke communicatie als een additionele indicator genomen waarbij geen richting van de communicatie wordt gespecificeerd.

De tweede categorie (MOC) bestaat uit massamediagebruik en detailhandelbezoek (bibliotheek en boekhandel) (op een ongoing search basis). Adverteren is een belangrijk instrument voor boekhandels en uitgeverijen om boeken te promoten in een markt die overvol is. Belangrijke kanalen waarlangs de consument bereikt kan worden, zijn advertenties in kranten, boekbesprekingen en televisieprogramma's over boeken. Aangezien deze informatiebronnen worden gekenmerkt door een hoge actualiteitsgraad, lenen ze zich bij uitstek voor consumenten die georiënteerd zijn op recent gepubliceerde boeken. *In-store* communicatie kan eveneens een sterke invloed uitoefenen op het beslissingsproces. Het regelmatig bezoeken van de bibliotheek en/of boekhandel zal de vertrouwdheid met deze in-store informatie vergroten. Consumenten kunnen de boekhandel of bibliotheek bezoeken zonder dat ze de intentie hebben om een boek te kopen of te lenen (ongoing search). De motieven voor ongoing search kunnen tweeledig zijn. Enerzijds kan men de behoefte hebben om een 'databank' aan te leggen met productinformatie die bruikbaar kan zijn in de toekomst. Anderzijds kan men ongoing search verrichten omwille

van de intrinsieke tevredenheid of het plezier dat men aan het zoeken van informatie ontleent. Om dit aspect van consumentengedrag niet uit te sluiten, wordt als additionele indicator detailhandel-*browsing* meegenomen. Er wordt een protocol-analyse verricht om het uitputtende karakter van de indicatoren van vertrouwdheid te onderzoeken. De resultaten wijzen uit dat de geselecteerde vertrouwdheidsmaten nagenoeg alomvattend zijn.

Indicator voor consumentenexpertise

Als indicator voor expertise wordt semantische kennis genomen. Door het enorme en snel wisselende aanbod zullen er grote individuele verschillen optreden in de omvang en de inhoud van consumentenexpertise als gevolg van verschillen in ervaringen. Dit heeft tot gevolg dat een alomvattende kennis- of herkenningstest niet ontwikkeld kan worden. Daarom zal de semantische kennis met behulp van een herinneringstaak bevraagd worden. Voor ieder van de vertrouwdheidsindicatoren en de expertisemaat worden in de betreffende studies bijpassende operationalisaties ten behoeve van de schaalconstructie geselecteerd.

Consumentenvertrouwdheid

Hoofdstuk 4 rapporteert de resultaten van de eerste studie (N=82). In deze studie worden de volgende onderzoeksdoelen geformuleerd: onderzoeken en vaststellen wat de betrouwbaarheid is van de operationalisaties van vertrouwdheid; de dimensionaliteit van vertrouwdheid bepalen en onderzoeken wat het effect van betrokkenheid is op de vertrouwdheid met fictie.

De empirische test van propositie 1: De dimensionaliteit van vertrouwdheid

De betrouwbaarheid van de operationalisaties van vertrouwdheid en de dimensionaliteit van vertrouwdheid worden simultaan onderzocht met behulp van factoranalyse en correlationele analyses. In de hypothese die afgeleid wordt uit Propositie 1 wordt gesteld dat vertrouwdheid een drie-dimensioneel construct is dat bestaat uit consumptiegedrag, NMIC en MOC. Om de hypothese te onderzoeken, wordt een factoranalyse uitgevoerd op de individuele items van de verschillende schalen die de vertrouwdheid met de verschillende consumentengedragingen bevragen. Op basis van een drie-factor oplossing worden NMIC, MOC, en het leesintensiteitsaspect/variatiezoekgedrag van consumptiegedrag als drie onderscheidende factoren geïdentificeerd. De georiënteerdheid op recent gepubliceerde boeken laadt samen met de indicatoren voor MOC op één en dezelfde factor. Aangezien MOC het middel bij uitstek is om geïnformeerd te blijven over het meest recente aanbod, is dit resultaat niet verrassend. Genrevoorkeuren laadt op verschillende factoren. In de factor-analyse gaat het lezen van literatuur samen met de indicatoren voor MOC, de indicatoren voor NMIC met het lezen van romantische boeken en het lezen van

spannende boeken met leesintensiteit en bibliotheekbezoek. Als zodanig lijkt de inhoud van vertrouwdheid te verschillen, afhankelijk van het soort consumptiegedrag, namelijk bestaande fictie versus nieuwe fictie en genrevoorkeuren. De resultaten wijzen erop dat er gemeenschappelijke dimensies zijn die ten grondslag liggen aan de items. De exacte dimensionaliteit van vertrouwdheid kan echter op basis van de factoranalyse niet eenduidig worden vastgesteld. De resultaten van de factoranalyse suggereren dat, in het algemeen, iedere afzonderlijke schaal als indicator van vertrouwdheid voorziet in unieke informatie die niet door de overige schalen wordt verstrekt; waardevolle informatie zal verloren gaan indien gebruik gemaakt wordt van gesommeerde scores over de schalen heen. Deze suggestie wordt bevestigd door de gemiddelde correlaties tussen en binnen de getheoretiseerde dimensies; deze zijn in het algemeen laag. De betrouwbaarheid van de individuele schalen kan op basis van de factoranalyse en de hoge Cronbach's Alpha's zeer tevredenstellend worden genoemd. Daarom wordt vertrouwdheid en de relatie met expertise onderzocht met behulp van de individuele schalen. Deze worden echter ten behoeve van de structurering van de analyses en de rapportage geschaard onder de koppen consumptie, NMIC en MOC.

De empirische test van proposities 2 en 3: Het effect van betrokkenheid op de vertrouwdheid met fictie

Eerder werd gesteld dat betrokkenheid een drijvende kracht is achter consumentengedrag die zowel de intensiteit als de structuur van vertrouwdheid zal beïnvloeden. Hoogbetrokken consumenten zullen een meer gevarieerd consumentengedragspatroon vertonen dan laagbetrokken consumenten: de structuur van vertrouwdheid zal verschillen al naar gelang de betrokkenheid (Propositie 3). De hoogbetrokken consumenten zullen ook frequenter dit gedrag vertonen: de mate van vertrouwdheid zal toenemen met de betrokkenheid (Propositie 2).

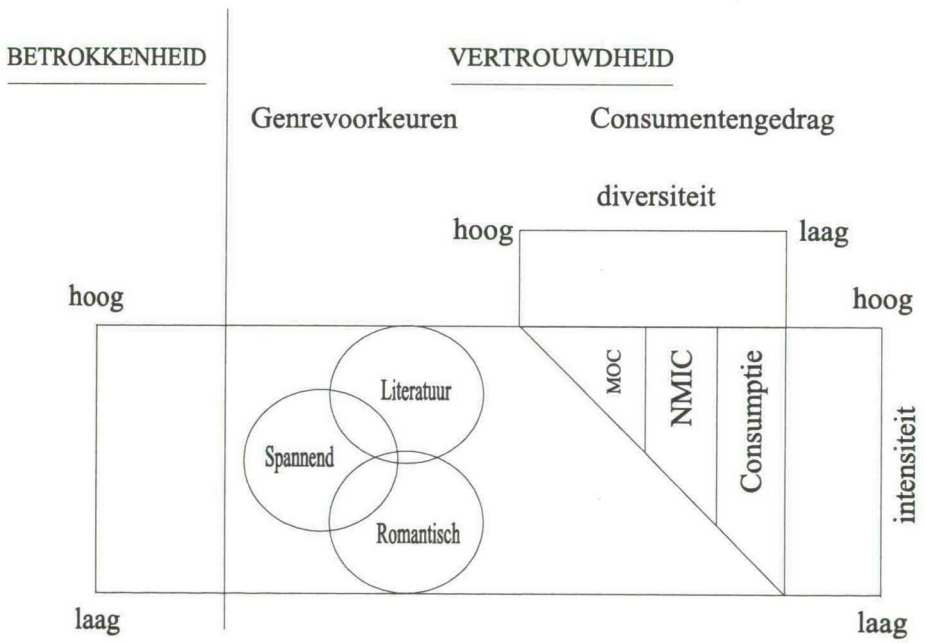
Er dient opgemerkt te worden dat hiernavolgend 'laag' betrokken staat voor lager betrokken relatief ten opzichte van de hoogbetrokken groep omdat de steekproef bestaat uit gemiddeld- tot hoogbetrokken lezers van fictie. De hypothese die wordt afgeleid uit Propositie 2 stelt dat consumenten met een lage betrokkenheid een lagere mate van vertrouwdheid hebben met fictie dan consumenten met een hoge betrokkenheid. Deze hypothese wordt gedeeltelijk ondersteund door de resultaten. Consumenten met een lage mate van betrokkenheid scoren doorgaans lager op de vertrouwdheidsmaten dan consumenten die hoog betrokken zijn. De verschillen zijn significant voor leesintensiteit, het lezen van literatuur, het georiënteerd zijn op recent gepubliceerde boeken, opinieleiderschap, interpersoonlijke communicatie en alle indicatoren voor MOC. De verschillen tussen deze gemiddelden zijn in de verwachte richting en suggereren dat hoogbetrokken lezers een grotere vertrouwdheid hebben met deze gedragingen dan laagbetrokken lezers. Er zijn

geen verschillen tussen de beide groepen in de vertrouwdheid met het lezen van romantische en spannende boeken, variatiezoekgedrag, opiniezoeken en bibliotheekbezoek. Zowel laag- als hoogbetrokken lezers zijn vertrouwd met deze gedragingen. Om vast te stellen of er een lineaire relatie ten grondslag ligt aan de verschillen in vertrouwdheid tussen laag- en hoogbetrokken lezers, wordt een additionele hypothese getoetst. Deze stelt dat de mate van vertrouwdheid positief is geassocieerd met de mate van betrokkenheid. De correlaties wijzen erop dat dit het geval is voor die vertrouwdheidsmaten waarvoor verschillen in gemiddelden tussen de beide groepen zijn gevonden.

Propositie 3 wordt rechtstreeks omgezet naar de hypothese dat de structuur van vertrouwdheid verschilt naar gelang de mate van betrokkenheid (laag versus hoog). Een INDSCAL toont aan dat er inderdaad verschillen bestaan in de structuur van vertrouwdheid, al naar gelang de betrokkenheid met fictie. De twee-dimensionele WMDS-oplossing wijst uit dat de eerste dimensie het belangrijkste is voor het beschrijven van de vertrouwdheid voor de laagbetrokken groep. Vooruitlopend op de resultaten van de nog te rapporteren clusteranalyse, wordt gesteld dat er - globaal genomen - een groep van laagbetrokken lezers is die in enige mate vertrouwd is met het lezen van spannende boeken, een hoge leesfrequentie heeft, vertrouwd is met het 'rondneuzen in' en bezoeken van de bibliotheek en de boekhandel, en georiënteerd is op recent gepubliceerde boeken. De andere groep laagbetrokken lezers is in enige mate vertrouwd met het lezen van romantische boeken, NMIC, het lezen van literatuur, massamediagebruik en variatiezoekgedrag. Een vier-factoroplossing suggereert dat het lezen van literatuur, massamediagebruik en variatiezoekgedrag typerend is voor een derde groep laagbetrokken lezers die als zodanig niet expliciet wordt onderscheiden in de twee-dimensionele WMDS-oplossing. De tweede dimensie is het belangrijkste voor het beschrijven van de vertrouwdheid voor de hoogbetrokken lezers van fictie. Aan de ene kant is er een groep van respondenten die vertrouwd is met het lezen van literatuur, massamediagebruik, het 'rondneuzen' in de boekhandel, het bezoeken van de boekhandel, opinieleiderschap en interpersoonlijke communicatie. Er is ook een groep van hoogbetrokken lezers wiens vertrouwdheid zich beperkt tot het lezen van romantische en/of spannende boeken, opiniezoeken, variatiezoekgedrag, bibliotheekbezoek en het lezen van fictie in het algemeen. De structuur van vertrouwdheid is anders (uitgebreider) voor de hoogbetrokken lezer (van literatuur) dan voor de hoog- dan wel laagbetrokken lezer van romantische en spannende boeken. De hypothese wordt bevestigd.

Omdat de perceptuele ruimte van de WMDS geen informatie geeft over de hoogte van de scores op de (groepen) vertrouwdheidsmaten, alsook de grootte van de verschillende groepen respondenten, worden de respondenten geclusterd op basis van gelijkheden in vertrouwdheid met fictie. De clusteranalyse identificeert een groep die een voorkeur heeft voor romantische boeken, een andere groep die een voorkeur heeft voor spannende boeken en een derde groep die een voorkeur heeft voor literatuur. De eerste groep is niet vertrouwd met het

bezoeken van de detailhandel of de bibliotheek maar wel met het lezen van romantische boeken, het zoeken naar opinies en het praten over boeken in het algemeen. De tweede groep heeft een hoge leesintensiteit en bezoekt voornamelijk de bibliotheek maar ook de boekhandel. De derde groep bezoekt voornamelijk de boekhandel maar ook de bibliotheek. Deze groep heeft de hoogste vertrouwdheid met betrekking tot massamediabronnen, informatie die verstrekt wordt in de detailhandel, opinieleiderschap en interpersoonlijke communicatie. Het niveau van betrokkenheid is eveneens het hoogst voor deze groep. De geobserveerde verschillen in de resultaten van de WMDS en de clusteranalyse worden toegeschreven aan methodologische kwesties, meer in het bijzonder aan de gekozen mediaansplit voor de betrokkenheidsvariabele in de WMDS. De resultaten die zover zijn verkregen, worden samengevat in een figuur die globaal de relatie tussen betrokkenheid en vertrouwdheid met fictie weergeeft zoals de data dit suggereren. Voor dit doeleinde wordt een onderscheid gemaakt tussen genrevoorkeuren en vertrouwdheid met consumptie, NMIC en MOC (zie Figuur 1). Voor een voorbeeld van een visualisatie hoe de figuur gelezen dient te worden, wordt verwezen naar Appendix 4.9.



Figuur 1: De relatie tussen betrokkenheid en de intensiteit en diversiteit van vertrouwdheid

De figuur geeft weer dat genrevoorkeuren, consumptiegedrag, NMIC en MOC gerelateerd zijn aan betrokkenheid. De kolommen 'betrokkenheid' en 'genrevoorkeuren' illustreren dat - globaal genomen - een vertrouwdheid met

zowel het lezen van romantische als spannende boeken het meest waarschijnlijk is als de betrokkenheid lager is: consumenten lezen voornamelijk romantische en/of spannende boeken. Als de betrokkenheid toeneemt, wordt de vertrouwdheid met het lezen van literatuur groter. Als een vertrouwdheid met het lezen van literatuur samen gaat met een vertrouwdheid met het lezen van romantische en/of spannende boeken, gaat het eerder samen met het lezen van spannende boeken. Op het hoogste niveau van betrokkenheid is het lezen van literatuur veelal de enig overblijvende activiteit wat betreft genrevoorkeuren.

De kolommen 'betrokkenheid' en 'consumentengedrag' geven weer dat de vertrouwdheid met consumentengedrag toeneemt als de betrokkenheid toeneemt. Tegelijkertijd neemt de diversiteit (structuur) van de vertrouwdheid toe. Mensen die weinig betrokken zijn, zijn het meest op zichzelf. Ze lezen fictie zonder dat er de behoefte bestaat om ervaringen met anderen uit te wisselen of om actief naar informatie te zoeken. De laagstbetrokken lezers beperken zich tot romantische boeken en vullen mogelijkerwijs dit consumptiegedrag aan met interpersoonlijke communicatie. Als de betrokkenheid verder toeneemt, verkiezen lezers vaker spannende boeken boven romantische boeken en vertonen ze daarnaast enige vertrouwdheid met MOC (met uitzondering echter van massamediagebruik en NMIC). Als de betrokkenheid met het lezen van fictie het grootst is, is er een grote behoefte aan het lezen van literatuur, het lezen van recent gepubliceerde boeken, opinieleiderschap, interpersoonlijke communicatie, het bezoeken van en het browsen in een boekhandel en het raadplegen van massamediabronnen. De vertrouwdheid met en de diversiteit van deze consumentengedragingen is voor deze groep het grootst.

Consumentenexpertise

In de studie (N=48) waarvan rapportage wordt gedaan in Hoofdstuk 5, wordt de betrouwbaarheid van de operationalisaties van expertise vastgesteld en worden deze onderzocht op hun psychometrische eigenschappen. Daarnaast wordt de relatie tussen vertrouwdheid en expertise geëxploreerd.

De psychometrische eigenschappen van een aantal expertisematen wordt onderzocht om de operationalisaties met de beste eigenschappen te identificeren. Omdat variantie het basisconcept is dat ten grondslag ligt aan psychologische metingen, worden statistische indices onderzocht om de mate vast te stellen waarin de expertisematen individuele verschillen toestaan tussen (groepen) respondenten. Twee categorieën van maten worden onderscheiden. Enerzijds zijn daar de maten die betrekking hebben op semantische kennis die bruikbaar is voor het nemen van beslissingen, namelijk namen van auteurs, namen van uitgevers en namen van prijzen/bekroningen. Anderzijds zijn er maten die betrekking hebben op semantische kennis van bronnen waar informatie over fictie verkregen kan worden, zoals de namen van plaatselijke boekhandels, recensenten, kranten en tijdschriften met een boekenbijlage en namen van televisieprogramma's.

Indien variantie als een criterium wordt genomen voor psychometrische metingen, is het herinneren van auteursnamen de beste expertisemaat. De maat kent een grote range van waarden en heeft voldoende variantie. De normale verdeeldheid en de kurtosis wijzen erop dat er voldoende spreiding is in scores in alle gebieden van de verdeling. Het herinneren van uitgevers en kranten met een boekenbijlage volgen op basis van hun spreidingsmaten, alsmede hun normale verdeeldheid.

Het vaststellen van de spreiding van de scores in de lagere en de hogere regionen van de verdeling met behulp van percentielscores, ondersteunt de vaststelling dat de maten 'het herinneren van prijzen', 'recensenten' en 'televisieprogramma's over boeken' ongewenste psychometrische eigenschappen hebben met weinig of geen spreiding in de lagere en hogere regionen van de verdeling van scores. Indien gebruik wordt gemaakt van een samengestelde score om een lage en een hoge expertise groep te vormen, discrimineren de maten 'herinnering van prijzen', 'boekhandels', 'recensenten' en 'televisieprogramma's' niet tussen deze beide groepen. De maten 'het herinneren van auteursnamen', 'uitgeverijen' en 'kranten en tijdschriften met een boekenbijlage' doen dit wel en vertonen daarmee uiteindelijk de beste psychometrische eigenschappen.

De resultaten lijken erop te wijzen dat een hoge score op het herinneren van auteursnamen samengaat met een hoge score op het herinneren van uitgevers en kranten/tijdschriften met een boekenbijlage. Correlaties wijzen uit dat de maten die het best discrimineren tussen de groep met een lage expertise en de groep met een hoge expertise ook het meest coherent zijn: een hoge score op één van de maten impliceert een hoge score op de andere twee maten. De drie soorten semantische kennis zijn relevant in het kader van beslissen in een keuzesituatie, terwijl de overige maten verwijzen naar bronnen waar informatie over boeken verkregen kan worden. Consumenten lijken een persoonlijk inschatting van hun eigen expertise te baseren op hun kennis van informatie die van belang is bij het maken van keuzes in de keuzesituatie: hoe groter deze kennis, hoe groter de zelf-waargenomen expertise.

De relatie wordt vervolgens geëxploreerd tussen vertrouwdheid met fictie enerzijds en het herinneren van auteursnamen, namen van uitgeverijen en kranten en tijdschriften met een boekenbijlage als indicatoren van expertise anderzijds. De drie expertisematen correleren hoog en positief met het lezen van literatuur, interpersoonlijke communicatie, massamediagebruik en detailhandelbezoek. De correlaties tussen betrokkenheid en deze vertrouwdheidsmaten enerzijds en tussen de vertrouwdheidsmaten en expertise anderzijds suggereren dat een hoge betrokkenheid samengaat met een hoge mate van vertrouwdheid met deze specifieke gedragingen en een hoge mate van expertise. Vertrouwdheid en expertise worden bepaald door het concrete gedrag dat aan hen ten grondslag ligt en hun wederzijdse relatie is sterk voor die gedragingen die typerend zijn voor hoogbetrokken lezers, namelijk het lezen van literatuur, de georiënteerdheid op nieuw gepubliceerde boeken,

opinieleiderschap, interpersoonlijke communicatie, massamediagebruik en detailhandelbezoek. De lineariteit van de relatie tussen (bepaalde) vertrouwdheidsmaten en expertise lijkt daarmee een functie van het soort vertrouwdheid te zijn en de betrokkenheid met fictie in het bijzonder.

Een instrument van consumentenexpertise met betrekking tot het maken van keuzes uit het aanbod van fictie zou de herinnering van auteursnamen, uitgevers en kranten/tijdschriften met een boekenbijlage moeten omvatten. Naast de goede psychometrische eigenschappen van de maten, geeft ook de geëxploreerde relatie tussen de expertisematen en vertrouwdheid aan dat de relaties tussen de afzonderlijke expertisematen en vertrouwdheid vergelijkbaar zijn. Indien de onderzoeker zich wenst te beperken tot een enkelvoudige maat om zo taakinspanning te verminderen, dient de voorkeur gegeven te worden aan het herinneren van auteursnamen als maat; de spreidingsmaten, het gemiddelde en de *face* validiteit overstijgen die van de twee andere maten. De resultaten van de eerder uitgevoerde protocolanalyse geven daarnaast aan dat beslissingen vaak worden genomen in de bibliotheek of de boekhandel waar consumenten zoeken naar titels van auteurs wier werk al bekend is. Naam van de auteur lijkt daarmee een essentieel informatie-item en een belangrijk onderdeel van consumentenexpertise omtrent fictie.

De relatie tussen vertrouwdheid en expertise

In Hoofdstuk 6 wordt rapportage gedaan van een studie (N=214) die de volgende onderzoeksdoelen behandelt: het verder uitdiepen van de relatie tussen vertrouwdheid en expertise en het effect van motivatie en capaciteit op deze relatie vaststellen. In deze studie is expertise gemeten met behulp van de maat 'auteursnamen'. Met betrekking tot het eerste onderzoeksdoel wordt vastgesteld dat er een positieve en significante samenhang is tussen leesintensiteit, het lezen van literatuur, de georiënteerdheid op recent gepubliceerde boeken, variatiezoekgedrag, NMDIC, massamediagebruik en boekhandelbezoek (op een ongoing search basis) enerzijds en expertise anderzijds. De correlaties suggereren wederom dat de expertise toeneemt indien de vertrouwdheid toeneemt met die gedragingen die - globaal genomen - typerend zijn voor hoogbetrokken lezers. Dit komt eveneens tot uitdrukking in de correlaties tussen betrokkenheid en de betreffende vertrouwdheidsmaten.

De empirische test van proposities 4 en 5: Het modererende effect van motivatie en capaciteit op de relatie tussen vertrouwheid en expertise

De proposities worden onderzocht die stellen dat motivatie en capaciteit de relatie tussen vertrouwdheid en expertise modereren (Proposities 4 en 5). Er wordt een onderscheid gemaakt tussen de sterkte van de relatie en de vorm van de relatie tussen vertrouwdheid en expertise. Om vast te stellen of de sterkte van de samenhang tussen vertrouwdheid en expertise verandert, al naar gelang de

motivatie, worden voor ieder van de vertrouwdheidsmaten verschillen in correlaties getoetst voor laag- en hooggemotiveerde consumenten.

De hypothese dat de samenhang tussen vertrouwdheid en expertise sterker wordt als de motivatie toeneemt, wordt niet bevestigd door de data. Voor de hoog- en laaggemotiveerde groep lezers zijn er geen significante verschillen in de hoogte van de correlaties tussen de vertrouwdheidsmaten en expertise. De correlaties suggereren slechts dat de samenhang tussen vertrouwdheid en expertise sterker wordt onder condities van hoge motivatie voor die gedragingen die typerend zijn voor hoogbetrokken lezers.

Wat betreft een hoge capaciteit zijn de verschillen in correlaties tussen de vertrouwdheidsmaten en expertise eveneens niet significant voor de lage- en de hogecapaciteitsgroepen. Ze zijn wel in de verwachte richting voor het lezen van literatuur, variatiezoekgedrag en massamediagebruik in die zin dat de samenhang tussen deze vertrouwdheidsmaten en expertise sterker is en positief onder condities van hoge capaciteit. Motivatie en capaciteit modereren de sterkte van de relatie tussen vertrouwdheid en expertise niet. Een mogelijke verklaring voor het niet vinden van significante verschillen tussen de correlaties gaat in op de tekortkomingen van de methode die gehanteerd is om de hypothesen te toetsen. Allereerst veronderstelt de methode dat voor beide groepen respondenten de varianties voor de afzonderlijke vertrouwdheidsmaten gelijk zijn. Om tegemoet te komen aan de gevolgen van ongelijke varianties, werden voorafgaand aan de analyses groepen van gelijke omvang genomen (Baron en Kenny, 1986). Er was echter sprake van ongelijke varianties voor de variabelen leesintensiteit, het lezen van literatuur, het lezen van spannende boeken en massamediagebruik wat betreft motivatie. Voor capaciteit was er sprake van ongelijke varianties voor de variabelen leesintensiteit en het lezen van literatuur. Daarnaast zijn grote steekproeven benodigd om verschillen in correlaties te detecteren. Naarmate de verschillen in correlaties kleiner worden, heeft men grotere steekproeven nodig om ze te detecteren (Arnold, 1982). De steekproefomvang van 214 respondenten in deze studie is dan betrekkelijk klein.

Vervolgens wordt met behulp van regressie-analyse onderzocht of motivatie en capaciteit de vorm van de relatie modereren. Meer in het bijzonder wordt gesteld dat motivatie en capaciteit het effect van vertrouwdheid op expertise intensiveren. Indien de productvariabelen van de vertrouwdheidsmaten met motivatie enerzijds en capaciteit anderzijds (interactie-effecten) significante voorspellers zijn van expertise, worden de hypotheses bevestigd. Er wordt gebruik gemaakt van geneste modellen om effecten van multicollineariteit op de resultaten te minimaliseren en om de grootte en de richting van het effect van de predictorvariabelen te exploreren. De analyses worden voor de blokken consumptie, NMIC en MOC herhaald om voldoende vrijheidsgraden per analyse te behouden.

Voor het consumptie-aspect van vertrouwdheid blijkt dat op modelniveau de proportie verklaarde variantie niet significant toeneemt als de interactie-effecten (motivatie èn capaciteit) in de regressie worden toegevoegd. Op het

predictorniveau blijkt het interactie-effect van georiënteerdheid op recent gepubliceerde boeken en motivatie wel een significante predictor van expertise te zijn: de vorm van de relatie tussen georiënteerdheid en expertise wordt gemodereerd door motivatie. Het (voorspellende) effect van vertrouwdheid met recent gepubliceerde boeken op expertise neemt toe als de motivatie toeneemt. Daarnaast blijken de hoeveelheid gelezen literatuur, de georiënteerdheid op recent gepubliceerde boeken en capaciteit positieve significante hoofdeffecten te zijn in de voorspelling van expertise.

Voor NMIC wordt vastgesteld dat op het modelniveau de toevoeging van de interactie-effecten leidt tot een significant toegenomen hoeveelheid verklaarde variantie. Op het predictorniveau is het interactie-effect van opinieleiderschap en motivatie positief en significant: het (voorspellende) effect van opinieleiderschap op expertise neemt toe als de motivatie toeneemt. Ook de hoofdeffecten van opinieleiderschap, motivatie en capaciteit zijn significante voorspellers van expertise. Het teken van de hoofdeffecten is positief.

Voor MOC blijkt dat de hoeveelheid verklaarde variantie significant is toegenomen na toevoeging van de interactie-effecten. Alleen het interactie-effect van boekhandelbezoek en motivatie is significant en de beta is positief. Het (voorspellende) effect van boekhandelbezoek op expertise neemt toe als de motivatie toeneemt. De beta's van de hoofdeffecten boekhandelbezoek, motivatie en capaciteit zijn positief. De variabelen voorspellen expertise succesvol.

De voorgaande analyses werden om statistische redenen voor blokken variabelen uitgevoerd. Deze procedure houdt echter geen rekening met de onderlinge correlaties tussen indicatoren voor vertrouwdheid die behoren tot verschillende dimensies. Daarom wordt tot slot een overall analyse uitgevoerd waarin alleen de significante predictoren uit de voorgaande analyse worden meegenomen in de regressie-analyse. Deze analyse wijst uit dat op modelniveau de geselecteerde predictoren alle bijdragen aan de hoeveelheid verklaarde variantie maar dat op predictorniveau alleen het interactie-effect van opinieleiderschap met motivatie een positief teken heeft en significant is. Van de hoofdeffecten blijken opinieleiderschap, boekhandelbezoek, motivatie en capaciteit goede voorspellers van expertise. Het uitblijven van significante effecten voor de overige variabelen wordt toegeschreven aan multicollineariteit: omdat de betreffende onafhankelijke variabelen sterk met elkaar samenhangen, zal de variabele die het sterkst samenhangt met expertise het lineaire effect op expertise overnemen waardoor er nagenoeg geen onverklaarde variantie meer overblijft die door de overige variabelen kan worden verklaard. Een mogelijke verklaring voor het vinden van een gering aantal significante interactie-effecten is dat de onafhankelijke variabelen voor vertrouwdheid en de moderatorvariabelen motivatie en capaciteit normaal verdeeld zijn. Hierdoor neemt het vermogen van de t-toets in de regressie-analyse om significante interactie-effecten te detecteren, af.

Conclusies en aanbevelingen

In het laatste hoofdstuk wordt allereerst nagegaan in welke mate de onderzoeksvragen met behulp van de onderliggende data beantwoord zijn.

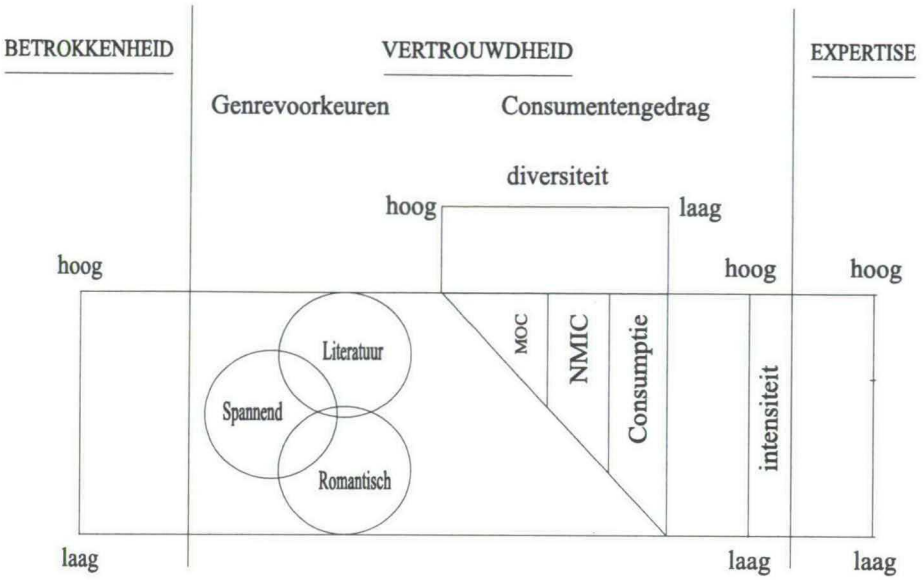
Betrokkenheid en de dimensionaliteit van vertrouwdheid

Met betrekking tot betrokkenheid en de dimensionaliteit van vertrouwdheid is de conclusie van het proefschrift dat er grote verschillen bestaan in de mate en de structuur van vertrouwdheid met fictie, zowel in termen van consumptie- als van informatiezoekgedrag, en dat deze verschillen in belangrijke mate verklaard kunnen worden door de betrokkenheid met fictie. Enkele belangrijke methodologische issues dienen echter vermeld te worden.

Met betrekking tot de gerapporteerde analyses betreffende betrokkenheid en vertrouwdheid, dient te worden vermeld dat de schalen van vertrouwdheid over de drie studies heen niet constant gehouden zijn. In de tweede en de derde studie is gebruik gemaakt van een selectie van items met de hoogste item-totaal correlaties in de schalen die gebruikt zijn in de eerste studie. Daarnaast is op basis van nieuwe inzichten de formulering van enkele items gewijzigd in daaropvolgende studies. Een replicatie van de analyses in Hoofdstuk 4 op basis van de dataset die gebruikt is in Hoofdstuk 6, wijst uit dat de resultaten desondanks betrouwbaar zijn. Een ander issue is *sample bias*: voornamelijk de matig- tot hoogbetrokken respondenten hebben deelgenomen aan de studies. Gegeven de vaststelling dat verschillen zijn gevonden onder de (hoogbetrokken) lezers van fictie, alsook de vaststelling dat de daadwerkelijk laagbetrokken lezers (deze scoren onder het schaalgemiddelde) de laagste vertrouwdheid hebben met fictie, wordt gesteld dat de resultaten betrouwbaar zijn. De oververtegenwoordiging van hoogbetrokken lezers van fictie kan mogelijkerwijs worden toegeschreven aan de methoden waarmee de steekproeven verkregen zijn, waaronder de beperking dat men tenminste één fictietitel gelezen moest hebben in de afgelopen twaalf maanden. Potentiële respondenten die weinig lazen, gaven vaak aan dat ze het gevoel hadden dat ze geen zinnige bijdrage aan het onderzoek konden leveren ondanks het feit dat ze aan de selectiecriteria voldeden. Pogingen om deze respondenten over te halen, faalden. Dit doet vermoeden dat deze personen niet voldoende betrokken waren met het lezen van fictie en daarom niet bereid waren om deel te nemen aan een tijdrovende studie. Men kan daarom concluderen dat de steekproeven niet representatief zijn omdat ze voornamelijk gematigd- tot hoogbetrokken lezers bevatten òf dat er nagenoeg geen lezers van fictie zijn die tenminste één fictietitel hebben gelezen in de afgelopen twaalf maanden en tegelijkertijd nauwelijks betrokken zijn met het lezen van fictie. Beide conclusies vinden steun in de data.

De relatie tussen vertrouwdheid en expertise

De inzichten die zijn verkregen uit de analyses van de relatie tussen betrokkenheid en vertrouwdheid enerzijds en vertrouwdheid en expertise anderzijds worden geëxtrapoleerd en gevisualiseerd in Figuur 2.



Figuur 2: De relatie tussen betrokkenheid, vertrouwdheid en expertise

De conclusie is dat, globaal genomen, de expertise laag is als consumenten matig tot hoog betrokken zijn met het lezen van fictie en als hun genrevoorkeuren zich tegelijkertijd beperken tot romantische en/of spannende boeken. Hun vertrouwdheid met consumentengedrag beperkt zich, globaal genomen, tot het lezen van fictie in het algemeen, variatiezoekgedrag, het praten over boeken, het vragen naar opinies en aanbevelingen van anderen en het voornamelijk bezoeken van de bibliotheek. De hoogbetrokken lezer die een voorkeur heeft voor literatuur is eveneens vertrouwd met deze gedragingen. Deze lezer is echter ook vertrouwd met het zoeken naar informatie over en het lezen van recent gepubliceerde boeken, opinieleiderschapgedrag en marketeergedomineerde onpersoonlijke communicatie. Als de vertrouwdheid met de laatstgenoemde gedragingen groot is, zal de expertise snel toenemen tot hoge niveaus.

De resultaten geven aan dat de som van alle gedragingen voor de lezer van literatuur lineair gerelateerd zal zijn aan expertise - zoals gedefinieerd en geoperationaliseerd in deze studie - maar dat het hanteren van samengestelde scores op basis van àlle subindicatoren van consumptie- en informatiezoekgedrag (een gedeelte van) de complexiteit van de relatie tussen

vertrouwdheid en expertise voor lezers van fictie in het algemeen zal negeren. Immers, als het gaat om het voorspellen (en verkrijgen) van expertise, kan een grote vertrouwdheid met de gedragingen die lezers van romantische en spannende boeken typeren niet compenseren voor een grote vertrouwdheid met die gedragingen die juist typerend zijn voor hoogbetrokken lezers van literaire fictie.

Het modererende effect van motivatie en capaciteit op de relatie tussen vertrouwdheid en expertise

Een voorzichtige maar meer risicovolle conclusie met betrekking tot het modererend effect van motivatie en capaciteit is dat de samenhang tussen vertrouwdheid en expertise groter is en dat vertrouwdheid met die gedragingen die typerend zijn voor hoogbetrokken lezers die een voorkeur hebben voor literatuur, expertise beter voorspelt als de motivatie hoog is. Dit suggereert dat een grote mate van motivatie nodig is om expertise omtrent fictie te verwerven. Voor capaciteit kan dit niet worden geconcludeerd.

Met betrekking tot het modererend effect van motivatie en capaciteit op de relatie tussen vertrouwdheid en expertise werd reeds een verklaring geboden voor het uitblijven van een groter aantal modererende effecten op de sterkte van de relatie, alsook de vorm. Aanvullend kan ook de operationalisatie van capaciteit in twijfel worden getrokken. Opleidingsniveau is een significante voorspeller van expertise en niet een moderator. Een hoge opleiding suggereert naast vaardigheid in het verwerken en memoriseren van informatie veel aandacht voor literatuur op school. Hooggemotiveerde lezers van literatuur beschikken echter ook over aanzienlijke expertise, ongeacht hun opleiding. De gekozen operationalisatie staat niet toe te achterhalen of de consumentenkennis het gevolg is van primaire of secundaire socialisatie, van toegenomen mentale vaardigheden om informatie eenvoudiger of efficiënter te verwerken, of van aanvullend informatiezoekgedrag door hoger-opgeleide lezers van fictie. Men zou daarom moeten zoeken naar een operationalisatie van capaciteit, zoals gedefinieerd in dit proefschrift, die niet indicatief is voor het socialisatieproces.

Beperkingen van de huidige studie en aanbevelingen voor toekomstig onderzoek

De studie dient te worden herhaald met een steekproef die representatief is voor de populatie, in termen van de betrokkenheid met fictie en de genrevoorkeuren. Quotums die betrekking hebben op de betrokkenheid met fictie en voorkeuren voor romantische, spannende, dan wel literaire boeken, zouden gehanteerd kunnen worden omdat vertrouwdheid en expertise, alsook hun onderlinge relatie, van deze variabelen een functie lijken te zijn. Met name de mogelijke verklarende rol die moderatorvariabelen kunnen spelen in de relatie tussen vertrouwdheid en expertise dient aandacht te krijgen. Quotums dienen zodanig te worden geformuleerd dat de verdelingen van de motivatie, capaciteit en

vertrouwdheid geoptimaliseerd worden. Dit wil zeggen, extreme waarden voor vertrouwdheid dienen samen te gaan met extreme waarden voor motivatie en capaciteit omdat op deze wijze het vermogen van de t-test om moderatorvariabelen te detecteren, wordt geoptimaliseerd.

Omdat een aantal conclusies is getrokken op basis van twee relatief kleine steekproeven, dienen de studies te worden herhaald met behulp van grotere steekproeven om zo de robuustheid van de resultaten vast te stellen. Aandacht dient besteed te worden aan de verdere uitbreiding en validering van de indicatoren en de schalen voor vertrouwdheid en expertise die in deze studie zijn gehanteerd.

Een aantal aanbevelingen voor verder onderzoek vloeide direct voort uit de tekortkomingen van deze studie. Een aantal aanvullende aanbevelingen wordt gemaakt. Er wordt voorgesteld om een vragenlijst over consumenten(beslissings)gedrag aan te vullen met de vertrouwdheids- en expertisematen zoals gehanteerd in dit proefschrift. Het gebruik van herinneringstaken wordt aangemoedigd om zo het idiosyncratische karakter van expertise te verdisconteren. Daarnaast wordt de aanbeveling gedaan om de huidige studie uit te breiden naar andere producten uit het culturele veld, zoals het lenen van video's, het bezoeken van bioscopen en het lenen of het kopen van CD's. Deze producten kennen een overeenkomstige beslissingscomplexiteit en als zodanig kunnen de inzichten die verkregen zijn in deze studie als basis dienen voor hypothesevorming omtrent deze andere culturele producten. Daarnaast dienen ook vergelijkende studies uitgevoerd te worden waarbij men de verschillen tussen meer utilitaire en meer hedonistische producten wat betreft de vertrouwdheid en expertise onderzoekt. Verder wordt de aanbeveling gedaan om in vervolgonderzoek procedurele kennis mee te nemen door aandacht te besteden aan het proces van (her)structurering van de probleemruimte in een beslissingsomgeving. De snelheid en de procedures waarmee de probleemruimte wordt ge(her)structureerd, alsook de omvang en de inhoud van de probleemruimte verdienen hierbij de aandacht. Tot slot wordt erop gewezen dat het conceptuele onderscheid tussen vertrouwdheid en expertise en het effect van betrokkenheid en genrecategorievoorkeuren op consumentenkennis in acht genomen dient te worden. De toetsing van het model in Figuur 2 vormt dan ook een interessante uitdaging.

Praktische aanbevelingen

Uitgaande van de assumptie dat auteursnaam functioneert als een merknaam, wordt de aanbeveling gedaan om marketingcommunicatie-inspanningen direct te richten op opinieleiders - dit zijn met name hoogbetrokken lezers van literatuur - waarbij hun potentiële adviesfunctie wordt benadrukt en waarin ze worden uitgenodigd om andere lezers te adviseren. Het is echter de vraag of opinieleiders veel invloed kunnen uitoefenen op laag- en hoogbetrokken lezers van romantische en spannende boeken want deze lezers hebben andere

genrevoorkeuren en ook minder kennis van auteursnamen. Dit heeft tot gevolg dat de effectiviteit van de informatie die verstrekt wordt door de boekhandel voor deze groep in twijfel getrokken kan worden. Deze is immers sterk gericht op auteursnamen. De vertrouwdheid met bibliotheekbezoek is groot voor laagbetrokken lezers van romantische en spannende boeken, terwijl de expertise laag is. Dit doet vermoeden dat deze groep voornamelijk aandacht besteedt aan genres, waarbij een verdere differentiatie binnen een genre naar auteurs nauwelijks voorkomt. Vermoedelijk wordt een voorselectie gemaakt op basis van de genre-aanduidingen. Eerdere leeservaringen opgedaan met een specifieke auteur en informatie op de omslag van het boek spelen hierna waarschijnlijk een belangrijke rol. Ervaringskennis kan ingezet worden om op basis van herkenning van de auteursnaam of het behouden van de auteursnaam in het werkgeheugen na inlevering van een vorig boek, een volgend boek te traceren. De resultaten van de eerder vermelde protocol-analyse ondersteunen deze veronderstelling. Een computersysteem dat een lijst van soortgelijke titels genereert op basis van een gelezen titel (op basis van bijvoorbeeld schrijfstijl, inhoud en overeenkomsten met andere genres), lijkt een effectief instrument om bibliotheekbezoekers te helpen (en te sturen) in hun keuzes.

Algemene conclusie

Samenvattend wordt gesteld dat de onderhavige studie ten minste drie bijdragen levert aan onderzoek naar consumentenkennis. Een eerste bijdrage betreft het inzicht dat consumentenvertrouwdheid omtrent fictie een multidimensioneel construct is: het hanteren van samengestelde scores die een lineaire combinatie zijn van de subindicatoren consumptie- en informatiezoekgedrag, zullen (een gedeelte van) de complexiteit van de relatie tussen consumentengedrag enerzijds en consumentenkennis anderzijds negeren. Ten tweede, door vertrouwdheid te onderzoeken onder condities van lage versus hoge betrokkenheid, en door vertrouwdheid te correleren met expertise, wordt een complexere relatie gevonden tussen de indicatoren voor vertrouwdheid enerzijds en expertise anderzijds, dan vaak in de literatuur wordt aangenomen. Tot slot wijzen de resultaten uit dat de relatie tussen vertrouwdheid en expertise bestudeerd moet worden met inachtneming van een bredere range aan (moderator)variabelen, waarvan betrokkenheid en motivatie de meest voordehand liggende zijn.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 4.1

Operationalisations Study 1

Item	Answer categories	Code
READING INTENSITY		
On average, how often do you spend time reading books? **(R)**	1 one or more times a week 2 once every two to three weeks 3 about once a month 4 about once every two to three months 5 about once every four to five months 6 once every six months to less often (almost) never	LEESFREQ
On average, how long do you read each time you read?	1 less than 5 minutes 2 5 to 15 minutes 3 15 to 30 minutes 4 30 to 60 minutes (1 hour) 5 60 to 90 minutes (1,5 hours) 6 more than 90 minutes	LEESDUUR
How long ago was it that you last finished a book? **(R)**	1 one week ago or sooner 2 two to three weeks ago 3 about one month ago 4 about two to three months ago 5 about four to five months ago 6 a half year ago or longer longer than one year ago	LEESLAAT
On average, how many books do you read in a year? **(R)**	1 one or more books a week 2 one book every two to three weeks 3 one book a month 4 one book every two to three months 5 one book every four to five months 6 one book or less every six months	LEESAANT

GENRE PREFERENCES		
Please, indicate for each category of genres whether you have read books belonging to that genre in the past 12 months by marking the [ ] in the column **'this is what I read'**. You may mark several genres.	1 yes 2 no MYSTERY/SUSPENSE a. thrillers b. adventure stories c. spy novels d. detectives e. war novels f. horror g. science fiction, fantasy h. mystery/suspense in a language other than Dutch i. other mystery/suspense,_____ ROMANCE j. regional novels k. family sages l. historical novels m. bouquet/intimate/candle light n. romance in a language other than Dutch o. other romances, _____ LITERATURE p. original Dutch literary fiction q. foreign literary fiction translated into Dutch foreign literary fiction in the original language r. : British s. : American t. : German u. : French v. other literature, _____	
How many books have you finished reading (approximately) in each category in the past 12 months?	• MYSTERY/SUSPENSE:__books • ROMANCE: __books • LITERATURE:__books	
ORIENTATION TOWARDS NEWLY-PUBLISHED BOOKS		
I am very interested in newly-published books	1 I don't agree at all 5 I completely agree	INNOVAT1
I am well-informed on the most recently published books	1 I don't agree at all 5 I completely agree	INNOVAT2

In general, I am not acquainted with the names of the authors who have recently made their debut (**R**)	1 I don't agree at all 5 I completely agree	INNOVAT3
How often do you read newly-published books before they appear in the top ten?	1 never 5 very often	INNOVAT4
How often do you search for information on newly-published books?	1 never 5 very often	INNOVAT5
How often do you read newly-published books before you heard about them from others?	1 never 5 very often	INNOVAT6
How often do you read the debuts by unknown new authors?	1 never 5 very often	INNOVAT7
VARIETY SEEKING		
How often do you read several books in a row by one and the same author? (**R**)	1 never 5 very often	AFWISAUT
How often do you read several books in a row about one and the same theme? (**R**)	1 never 5 very often	AFWISOND
How often do you read several books in a row from one and the same genre? (**R**)	1 never 5 very often	AFWISGEN
OPINION LEADERSHIP		
How often do others ask you for information about newly-published books?	1 never 5 very often	SOURCE1
How often do others ask you about books you have read?	1 never 5 very often	SOURCE2
How often do others ask you to advise them which books to read?	1 never 5 very often	SOURCE3
When talking about books, how often do you advise others against reading a book you did not like?	1 never 5 very often	INFLUEN1
How often are you the one who starts talking about books when in the company of others?	1 never 5 very often	INFLUEN2
When talking about books, how often do you advise others, without being asked, to read a book you liked very much?	1 never 5 very often	INFLUEN3
OPINION SEEKING		
How often do you talk to others about a specific book before you actually read it yourself?	1 never 5 very often	INFOSEE1
How often do you ask others for their opinion about a book before you read it yourself?	1 never 5 very often	INFOSEE2

How often do you ask others for their opinion about books you are considering reading?	1 never 5 very often	INFOSEE3
How often do you ask others which books they can recommend for reading?	1 never 5 very often	INFOSEE4
INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION		
How often do you discuss with others which books are worth reading?	1 never 5 very often	INTERP1
How often do you compare your opinions on books you have recently read with those of others?	1 never 5 very often	INTERP2
How often do you talk about books with others?	1 never 5 very often	INTERP3
MASS-MEDIA USAGE		
How often do you watch programs about books on television?	1 never 5 very often	MASS1
How often do you read the book sections in newspapers or magazines?	1 never 5 very often	MASS2
How often do you read book reviews in newspapers or magazines?	1 never 5 very often	MASS3
How often do you read brochures distributed by bookstores?	1 never 5 very often	MASS4
RETAIL BROWSING		
How often do you visit bookstores for their fiction without having the intention of buying a particular book?	1 never 5 very often	RETAIL1
How often do you visit a bookstore, just to browse through their fiction?	1 never 5 very often	RETAIL2
DISTRIBUTION-CHANNEL VISITING		
On average, how often do you visit a location where fiction books are sold (e.g., bookstore, branch of a book club, book market, etc.)? **(R)**	1 one or more times a week 2 once every two to three weeks 3 about once a month 4 about once every two to three months 5 about once every four to six months 6 once a year 7 (almost) never	FREQWINK
Are you a member of a public library?	1 yes 2 no	
Do you ever borrow books from the library using someone else's library pass?	1 yes 2 no	

On average, how often do you visit a library to borrow books for yourself? **(R)**	1 one or more times a week 2 once every two to three weeks 3 about once a month 4 about once every two to three months 5 about once every four to six months 6 once a year 7 (almost) never	FREQBIEB
INVOLVEMENT		
Reading books is one of my favorite leisure activities	1 I don't agree at all 5 I completely agree	BETROK1
If I don't read in books on a regular basis, it feels as if something is missing	1 I don't agree at all 5 I completely agree	BETROK2
Reading books is very important to me	1 I don't agree at all 5 I completely agree	BETROK3
Reading books is more than a distraction to me. It is a hobby	1 I don't agree at all 5 I completely agree	BETROK4
I'm not interested in reading books **(R)**	1 I don't agree at all 5 I completely agree	BETROK5
MISCELLANEOUS		
Are you a member of a book club (e.g. ECI)?	1 yes 2 no	
SOCIODEMOGRAPHICS		
What is your gender?	1 male 2 female	
What is your year of birth?	19__	
What is the highest level of education you have completed?	1 primary education (LO) 2 junior vocational training (LBO) 3 junior general secondary education (MAVO) 4 senior vocational training (MBO) 5 senior general secondary /pre-university education (HAVO/VWO) 6 vocational colleges (HBO) 7 university (WO) 8 post-doctoral education 9 missing answer	
What is your main occupation?	1 I have a part-time/full-time job for __ hours a week 2 I am an (early) retiree 3 I am unemployed 4 I am a full-time homemaker 5 I am a student 6 different:_____ 9 missing answer	

APPENDIX 4.2

Reliability analyses

The reader is referred to Appendix 4.1 for an explanation of the variable names

READING INTENSITY

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
LEESFREQ	13,1250	5,1487	,6348	,4834
LEESDUUR	14,4375	10,1226	-,0009	,8140
LEESLAAT	13,1500	6,5089	,5359	,5694
LEESAANT	14,1875	4,9644	,7233	,4091

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases = 80,0 N of Items = 4

Alpha = ,6811

R E L I A B I L I T Y A N A L Y S I S - S C A L E (A L L)

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
LEESFREQ	9,2716	4,4253	,6909	,7181
LEESLAAT	9,2963	5,7611	,5780	,8274
LEESAANT	10,3457	4,4290	,7403	,6615

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases = 81,0 N of Items = 3

Alpha = ,8134

R E L I A B I L I T Y A N A L Y S I S

ORIENTATION TOWARDS NEWLY-PUBLISHED BOOKS

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
INNOVAT1	15,1026	23,3400	,6330	,7776
INNOVAT2	15,8205	22,1492	,6763	,7685
INNOVAT3	15,2692	25,0824	,4359	,8132
INNOVAT4	16,0769	25,3187	,5358	,7951
INNOVAT5	16,3590	25,6617	,4948	,8013
INNOVAT6	15,5897	24,0892	,5944	,7848
INNOVAT7	16,0897	24,8360	,5223	,7970

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases = 78,0 N of Items = 7

Alpha = ,8160

R E L I A B I L I T Y A N A L Y S I S

VARIETY SEEKING

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
AFWISGEN	5,2805	4,9944	,7073	,7686
AFWISAUT	5,0732	4,2909	,6669	,8032
AFWISOND	4,8171	4,2254	,7261	,7386

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases = 82,0 N of Items = 3

Alpha = ,8341

R E L I A B I L I T Y A N A L Y S I S

OPINION LEADERSHIP

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
SOURCE1	12,2750	13,7462	,5678	,7526
SOURCE2	11,5750	13,3108	,6460	,7339
SOURCE3	11,9875	13,2530	,7515	,7141
INFLUEN1	12,3500	15,5975	,3510	,7993
INFLUEN2	11,9000	13,7114	,5040	,7689
INFLUEN3	11,4125	13,5112	,4822	,7768

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases = 80,0 N of Items = 6

Alpha = ,7906

R E L I A B I L I T Y A N A L Y S I S - S C A L E (A L L)

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
SOURCE1	10,3250	10,5259	,5993	,7556
SOURCE2	9,6250	10,5158	,6123	,7518
SOURCE3	10,0375	10,1631	,7796	,7071
INFLUEN2	9,9500	10,3772	,5491	,7721
INFLUEN3	9,4625	10,8340	,4269	,8157

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases = 80,0 N of Items = 5

Alpha = ,7993

R E L I A B I L I T Y A N A L Y S I S

OPINION SEEKING

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
INFOSEE1	7,4103	8,6347	,6341	,8367
INFOSEE2	7,2949	8,5223	,7130	,8029
INFOSEE3	7,5385	8,9271	,7220	,8025
INFOSEE4	7,1410	7,9149	,7126	,8039

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases = 78,0 N of Items = 4

Alpha = ,8517

R E L I A B I L I T Y A N A L Y S I S

INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
INTERP1	5,6875	4,4201	,6901	,7810
INTERP2	6,1250	4,1361	,7307	,7405
INTERP3	5,8875	4,5568	,6751	,7953

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases = 80,0 N of Items = 3

Alpha = ,8364

R E L I A B I L I T Y A N A L Y S I S

MASS-MEDIA USAGE

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
MASS1	5,8625	6,3226	,6179	,8821
MASS2	5,0250	5,2146	,7551	,7573
MASS3	4,8625	5,3100	,7965	,7166

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases = 80,0 N of Items = 3

Alpha = ,8505

R E L I A B I L I T Y A N A L Y S I S

RETAIL BROWSING

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
RETAIL1	3,4074	1,5944	,8711	.
RETAIL2	3,2099	1,8929	,8711	.

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases = 81,0 N of Items = 2

Alpha = ,9293

R E L I A B I L I T Y A N A L Y S I S

INVOLVEMENT

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
BETROK1	16,6447	6,8454	,6577	,6291
BETROK2	17,0132	6,1732	,4991	,7015
BETROK3	16,6974	6,7205	,6829	,6185
BETROK4	17,0000	5,9467	,5796	,6579
BETROK5	15,8026	10,5605	,0645	,7819

Reliability Coefficients

N of Cases = 76,0 N of Items = 5

Alpha = ,7344

R E L I A B I L I T Y A N A L Y S I S - S C A L E (A L L)

Item-total Statistics

	Scale Mean if Item Deleted	Scale Variance if Item Deleted	Corrected Item-Total Correlation	Alpha if Item Deleted
BETROK1	11,5513	7,1337	,6763	,7089
BETROK2	11,9231	6,4615	,5256	,7876
BETROK3	11,5641	7,3140	,6535	,7208
BETROK4	11,8846	6,4151	,5968	,7417

Reliability Coefficients

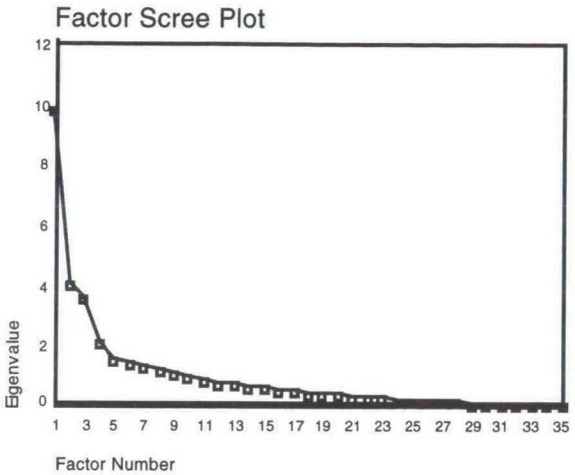
N of Cases = 78,0 N of Items = 4

Alpha = ,7901

APPENDIX 4.3

Factor analysis three-factor solution

FACTOR SCREE PLOT THREE FACTOR SOLUTION



- - - - - - - - - - - F A C T O R A N A L Y S I S - - - - - - -

Extraction 1 for analysis 1, Principal Components Analysis (PC)

Initial Statistics:

Variable	Communality	*	Factor	Eigenvalue	Pct of Var	Cum Pct
LEESFREQ	1,00000	*	1	9,77965	27,9	27,9
LEESLAAT	1,00000	*	2	4,02576	11,5	39,4
LEESAANT	1,00000	*	3	3,56380	10,2	49,6
FLIT	1,00000	*	4	2,03931	5,8	55,5
FROM	1,00000	*	5	1,58235	4,5	60,0
FSPAN	1,00000	*	6	1,39112	4,0	63,9
INNOVAT1	1,00000	*	7	1,30315	3,7	67,7
INNOVAT2	1,00000	*	8	1,20270	3,4	71,1
INNOVAT3	1,00000	*	9	1,04892	3,0	74,1
INNOVAT4	1,00000	*	10	,96463	2,8	76,9
INNOVAT5	1,00000	*	11	,82403	2,4	79,2
INNOVAT6	1,00000	*	12	,76296	2,2	81,4
INNOVAT7	1,00000	*	13	,74549	2,1	83,5
AFWISOND	1,00000	*	14	,67483	1,9	85,5
AFWISAUT	1,00000	*	15	,57632	1,6	87,1
AFWISGEN	1,00000	*	16	,53938	1,5	88,6
INFOSEE1	1,00000	*	17	,50019	1,4	90,1
INFOSEE2	1,00000	*	18	,43844	1,3	91,3
INFOSEE4	1,00000	*	19	,42378	1,2	92,5
INFOSEE5	1,00000	*	20	,38804	1,1	93,6
SOURCE1	1,00000	*	21	,33789	1,0	94,6
SOURCE2	1,00000	*	22	,31918	,9	95,5
SOURCE3	1,00000	*	23	,26183	,7	96,3
INFLUEN2	1,00000	*	24	,20762	,6	96,9
INFLUEN3	1,00000	*	25	,19164	,5	97,4
INTERP1	1,00000	*	26	,17623	,5	97,9
INTERP2	1,00000	*	27	,14767	,4	98,3
INTERP3	1,00000	*	28	,13084	,4	98,7
MASS1	1,00000	*	29	,11185	,3	99,0
MASS2	1,00000	*	30	,10065	,3	99,3
MASS3	1,00000	*	31	,08946	,3	99,6
RETAIL1	1,00000	*	32	,05569	,2	99,7
RETAIL2	1,00000	*	33	,04786	,1	99,9
FREQWINK	1,00000	*	34	,04377	,1	100,0
FREQBIEB	1,00000	*	35	,00297	,0	100,0

Final Statistics:

Variable	Communality	*	Factor	Eigenvalue	Pct of Var	Cum Pct
		*				
LEESFREQ	,44719	*	1	9,77965	27,9	27,9
LEESLAAT	,33411	*	2	4,02576	11,5	39,4
LEESAANT	,54290	*	3	3,56380	10,2	49,6
FLIT	,30875	*				
FROM	,23375	*				
FSPAN	,41632	*				
INNOVAT1	,69731	*				
INNOVAT2	,55261	*				
INNOVAT3	,34781	*				
INNOVAT4	,33684	*				
INNOVAT5	,44406	*				
INNOVAT6	,56678	*				
INNOVAT7	,29619	*				
AFWISOND	,49451	*				
AFWISAUT	,48564	*				
AFWISGEN	,40065	*				
INFOSEE1	,50641	*				
INFOSEE2	,67485	*				
INFOSEE4	,51282	*				
INFOSEE5	,59513	*				
SOURCE1	,58282	*				
SOURCE2	,53417	*				
SOURCE3	,55998	*				
INFLUEN2	,46654	*				
INFLUEN3	,23073	*				
INTERP1	,73612	*				
INTERP2	,72941	*				
INTERP3	,60612	*				
MASS1	,52468	*				
MASS2	,68579	*				
MASS3	,60260	*				
RETAIL1	,58182	*				
RETAIL2	,60093	*				
FREQWINK	,52215	*				
FREQBIEB	,21072	*				

VARIMAX rotation 1 for extraction 1 in analysis 1 - Kaiser Normalization.

VARIMAX converged in 5 iterations.

Rotated Factor Matrix:

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
LEESFREQ	,09049	,10559	,65410
LEESLAAT	-,04684	-,00891	,57606
LEESAANT	,02905	-,09984	,72944
FLIT	,50340	,00421	-,23520
FROM	-,32427	,29601	,20244
FSPAN	-,14943	-,24654	,57724
INNOVAT1	,83237	,05460	,03854
INNOVAT2	,71792	,19124	-,02510
INNOVAT3	,53527	,24697	,01752
INNOVAT4	,55323	,16389	,06255
INNOVAT5	,59526	,24437	,17325
INNOVAT6	,72128	,11167	,18459
INNOVAT7	,52368	,14096	,04566
AFWISOND	-,06417	-,09225	-,69418
AFWISAUT	-,09735	-,17383	-,66780
AFWISGEN	-,07293	,01785	-,62850
INFOSEE1	,13203	,69205	-,10022
INFOSEE2	-,09865	,81094	-,08661
INFOSEE4	,05289	,70696	-,10113
INFOSEE5	,01234	,77128	,01045
SOURCE1	,57386	,50028	-,05677
SOURCE2	,17128	,69615	,14214
SOURCE3	,26349	,69123	,11292
INFLUEN2	,40606	,54446	,07227
INFLUEN3	,08245	,46738	,07410
INTERP1	,26195	,81656	,02687
INTERP2	,35204	,74908	-,21062
INTERP3	,38737	,67451	,03323
MASS1	,69130	,18172	-,11732
MASS2	,79646	,20507	-,09682
MASS3	,71482	,17755	-,24515
RETAIL1	,75605	,00824	,10070
RETAIL2	,77229	,04789	,04688
FREQWINK	,67817	,03767	,24660
FREQBIEB	-,02868	-,01758	,45781

Factor Transformation Matrix:

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
Factor 1	,78836	,61483	,02167
Factor 2	-,58510	,76019	-,28244
Factor 3	-,19012	,20998	,95904

APPENDIX 4.4

Factor analysis four-factor solution

- - - - - - - - - - - F A C T O R A N A L Y S I S - - - - - - -

Final Statistics:

Variable	Communality	*	Factor	Eigenvalue	Pct of Var	Cum Pct
		*				
LEESFREQ	,53031	*	1	9,77965	27,9	27,9
LEESLAAT	,57564	*	2	4,02576	11,5	39,4
LEESAANT	,66324	*	3	3,56380	10,2	49,6
FLIT	,52175	*	4	2,03931	5,8	55,5
FROM	,29270	*				
FSPAN	,42419	*				
INNOVAT1	,71943	*				
INNOVAT2	,61656	*				
INNOVAT3	,35727	*				
INNOVAT4	,37811	*				
INNOVAT5	,44439	*				
INNOVAT6	,61417	*				
INNOVAT7	,30984	*				
AFWISOND	,68077	*				
AFWISAUT	,55810	*				
AFWISGEN	,52962	*				
INFOSEE1	,56451	*				
INFOSEE2	,67542	*				
INFOSEE4	,51578	*				
INFOSEE5	,60946	*				
SOURCE1	,59938	*				
SOURCE2	,59612	*				
SOURCE3	,58315	*				
INFLUEN2	,48270	*				
INFLUEN3	,26374	*				
INTERP1	,73804	*				
INTERP2	,76444	*				
INTERP3	,61154	*				
MASS1	,52471	*				
MASS2	,68782	*				
MASS3	,60611	*				
RETAIL1	,64175	*				
RETAIL2	,62722	*				
FREQWINK	,52244	*				
FREQBIEB	,57807	*				

- - - - - - - - - F A C T O R A N A L Y S I S - - - - - - - - -

VARIMAX rotation 1 for extraction 1 in analysis 1 - Kaiser Normalization.

VARIMAX converged in 6 iterations.

Rotated Factor Matrix:

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
LEESFREQ	,10368	,11148	,66477	-,25537
LEESLAAT	-,04970	,02136	,75468	-,05639
LEESAANT	,04038	-,08926	,76851	-,25108
FLIT	,46464	,05834	,15804	,52677
FROM	-,29730	,26319	-,04128	-,36516
FSPAN	-,13078	-,25578	,48479	-,32656
INNOVAT1	,82367	,06633	,13636	,13421
INNOVAT2	,70193	,21525	,15607	,23057
INNOVAT3	,53130	,25370	,07378	,07204
INNOVAT4	,56794	,13886	-,09948	-,16240
INNOVAT5	,60478	,23384	,10550	-,11323
INNOVAT6	,74132	,08087	-,01837	-,24030
INNOVAT7	,53246	,12552	-,05056	-,08953
AFWISOND	-,12108	-,02347	-,19181	,79295
AFWISAUT	-,14431	-,12198	-,28270	,66519
AFWISGEN	-,12159	,07634	-,20057	,68468
INFOSEE1	,11983	,71580	,06541	,18305
INFOSEE2	-,09578	,81185	-,08403	-,00853
INFOSEE4	,05824	,70070	-,14269	-,03249
INFOSEE5	,01327	,77860	,05517	,00369
SOURCE1	,58210	,48499	-,14835	-,05762
SOURCE2	,19842	,66142	-,10274	-,32974
SOURCE3	,28339	,66720	-,05515	-,23377
INFLUEN2	,40603	,55088	,11872	,01675
INFLUEN3	,07947	,48044	,15869	,03772
INTERP1	,26779	,81479	,01418	-,04742
INTERP2	,33800	,77036	-,05175	,23251
INTERP3	,39862	,66109	-,05542	-,11195
MASS1	,68558	,18384	-,08204	,11900
MASS2	,78930	,21014	-,04000	,13810
MASS3	,70017	,18954	-,13573	,24804
RETAIL1	,77283	-,02188	-,09213	-,18846
RETAIL2	,78218	,02780	-,07469	-,09517
FREQWINK	,68671	,02917	,19262	-,11364
FREQBIEB	-,04365	,02850	,75062	,10922

Factor Transformation Matrix:

	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
Factor 1	,79312	,60882	-,00588	-,01659
Factor 2	-,58875	,76682	-,24274	,08025
Factor 3	-,14471	,17588	,67438	-,70238
Factor 4	-,05831	,10197	,69732	,70707

APPENDIX 4.5

Correlations between the familiarity measures

CONSUMPTION

Correlation Matrix

	LEZEN	FLIT	FROM	FSPAN	INNOVAT
LEZEN	1,0000				
FLIT	,1176	1,0000			
FROM	,2159	-,4933	1,0000		
FSPAN	,4132	-,4598	-,2647	1,0000	
INNOVAT	,1992	,3349	-,2539	,0433	1,0000
AFWIS	-,3258	,1299	-,0843	-,2893	-,1494

	AFWIS
AFWIS	1,0000

LEZEN=reading intensity
FLIT=proportion of literature read
FROM=proportion of romance read
FSPAN=proportion of mystery/suspense read
INNOVAT=orientation towards newly-published books
AFWIS=variety seeking

NMDIC

Correlation Matrix

	INFOSEEK	OPINION	INTERP
INFOSEEK	1,0000		
OPINION	,5471	1,0000	
INTERP	,7503	,7429	1,0000

INFOSEEK=opinion seeking
OPINION=opinion leadership
INTERP=interpersonal communication

MDIC

Correlation Matrix

	MASS	RETAIL	FREQWINK	FREQBIEB
MASS	1,0000			
RETAIL	,5738	1,0000		
FREQWINK	,3496	,6128	1,0000	
FREQBIEB	,0089	-,2087	-,1303	1,0000

MASS=mass-media usage
RETAIL=retail browsing
FREQWINK=retail visiting
FREQBIEB=library visiting

APPENDIX 4.6

Stimulus coordinates for the two-dimensional WMDS

Stimulus coordinates of the consumer behaviours for the low and high involved readers of fiction

	Dimension	
Behaviour:	1	2
Reading intensity	1.1106	.6648
The reading literature	-.5137	-1.5372
The reading of romance novels	-.5692	1.8036
The reading of mystery novels	2.0624	1.2008
Orientation towards newly-published books	.3290	-.9731
Variety seeking	-2.0568	.3090
Opinion leadership	.0086	-.1477
Opinion seeking	-1.1660	.5934
Interpersonal communication	-.4424	-.2230
Mass-media usage	-.3825	-1.2921
Retail browsing	.4889	-.8786
Retail visiting	.6210	-.6194
Library visiting	.5101	1.0994

APPENDIX 4.7

Agglomeration Schedule cluster-analysis

Agglomeration Schedule

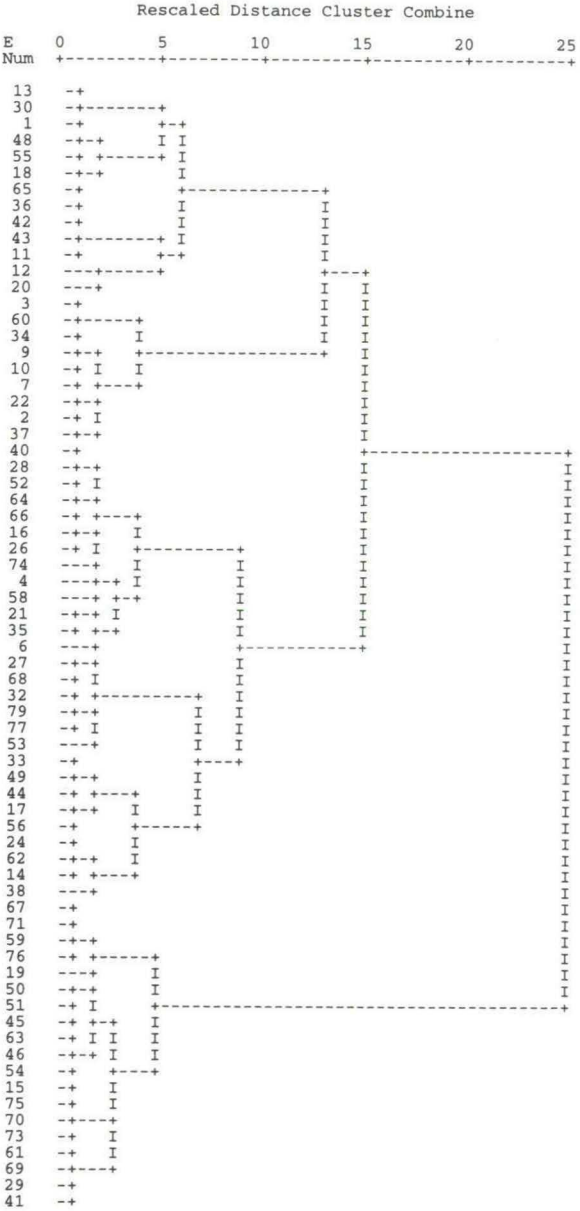
Stage	Cluster Combined Cluster 1	Cluster 2	Coefficients	Stage Cluster First Appears Cluster 1	Cluster 2	Next Stage
1	13	30	1.366	0	0	31
2	28	52	2.757	0	0	39
3	32	79	4.461	0	0	11
4	7	22	6.238	0	0	28
5	46	54	8.017	0	0	9
6	67	71	9.832	0	0	7
7	59	67	12.007	0	6	22
8	48	55	14.328	0	0	43
9	15	46	16.680	0	5	27
10	36	42	19.318	0	0	13
11	32	77	21.969	3	0	46
12	3	60	24.685	0	0	21
13	36	43	27.435	10	0	25
14	33	49	30.490	0	0	20
15	45	63	33.723	0	0	38
16	16	26	37.057	0	0	42
17	50	51	40.609	0	0	50
18	18	65	44.222	0	0	43
19	61	69	47.851	0	0	37
20	33	44	51.493	14	0	47
21	3	34	55.177	12	0	57
22	59	76	59.139	7	0	40
23	17	56	63.125	0	0	47
24	27	68	67.453	0	0	49
25	11	36	71.970	0	13	61
26	24	62	76.633	0	0	33
27	15	75	81.489	9	0	38
28	2	7	86.493	0	4	44
29	29	41	91.846	0	0	37
30	21	35	97.256	0	0	45
31	1	13	102.835	0	1	60
32	64	66	108.429	0	0	39
33	14	24	114.110	0	26	51
34	9	10	119.997	0	0	53
35	70	73	126.143	0	0	54
36	37	40	132.314	0	0	44
37	29	61	138.991	29	19	54
38	15	45	145.687	27	15	50
39	28	64	152.653	2	32	48
40	19	59	159.675	0	22	62
41	4	58	166.870	0	0	55
42	16	74	174.123	16	0	48
43	18	48	181.463	18	8	60
44	2	37	188.994	28	36	53
45	6	21	196.693	0	30	55
46	32	53	204.607	11	0	49
47	17	33	213.031	23	20	58
48	16	28	223.049	42	39	59
49	27	32	233.654	24	46	64
50	15	50	244.269	38	17	56
51	14	38	255.329	33	0	58
52	12	20	267.066	0	0	61
53	2	9	278.887	44	34	57
54	29	70	291.784	37	35	56
55	4	6	306.320	41	45	59
56	15	29	322.099	50	54	62
57	2	3	339.599	53	21	66
58	14	17	357.497	51	47	64
59	4	16	377.663	55	48	65
60	1	18	401.481	31	43	63
61	11	12	425.580	25	52	63
62	15	19	453.804	56	40	68
63	1	11	483.741	60	61	66
64	14	27	518.511	58	49	65
65	4	14	566.802	59	64	67
66	1	2	632.995	63	57	67
67	1	4	710.646	66	65	68
68	1	15	846.384	67	62	0

APPENDIX 4.8

Dendogram cluster-analysis

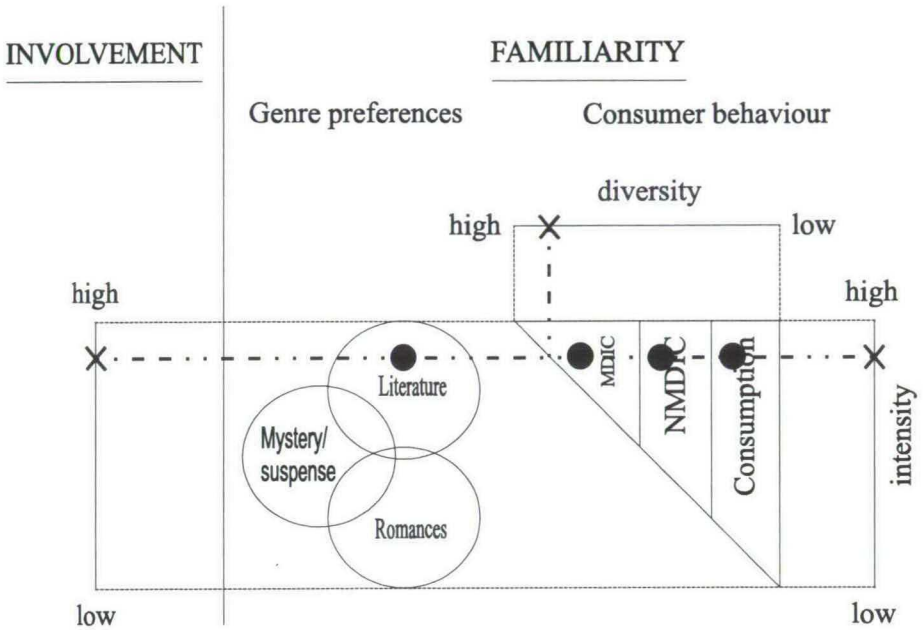
* * * * * * H I E R A R C H I C A L C L U S T E R A N A L Y S I S * * * * * *

Dendrogram using Ward Method



APPENDIX 4.9

A visualisation of how to read figure 4.2 and figure 7.1



APPENDIX 5.1

Operationalisations study 2

Item	Answer categories
READING INTENSITY	
On average, how often do you spend time reading books? **(R)**	1 one or more times a week 2 once every two to three weeks 3 about once a month 4 about once every two to three months 5 about once every four to six months 6 less often
On average, how long do you read each time you read?	1 less than 5 minutes 2 5 to 15 minutes 3 15 to 30 minutes 4 30 to 60 minutes 5 60 to 90 minutes 6 more than 90 minutes
How long ago was it that you last finished a book? **(R)**	1 one week ago or sooner 2 two or three weeks ago 3 about one month ago 4 about two to three months ago 5 about four to six months ago 6 six months ago or longer
On average, how many books have you finished in the past 12 months? **(R)**	1 one or more books a week 2 one book every two to three weeks 3 one book a month 4 one book every two to three months 5 one book every four to six months 6 less than one book in six months

GENRE PREFERENCE	
If you read a book from the genre category 'mystery/suspense'/ 'romance'/'literature', how often do you read:	1 never 2 sometimes 3 often MYSTERY/SUSPENSE a. thrillers b. adventure stories c. spy novels d. detectives e. war novels f. horror g. science fiction, fantasy h. mystery/suspense in a language other than Dutch i. other mystery/suspense,_____ ROMANCE j. regional novels k. family sagas l. historical novels m. bouquet/intimate/candle light n. romance in a language other than Dutch o. other romance fiction,_____ LITERATURE p. original Dutch literary fiction q. foreign literary fiction translated into Dutch foreign literary fiction in the original language r. : British s. : American t. : German u : French v. other literature,_____
Please, indicate on the back of this form how many of the total number of books you read belong to the each of the categories 'mystery/suspense', 'romance', and/or 'literature' by marking '(almost)none, '1 out of 4', '2 out of 4', '3 out of 4', or '(almost) all'	0 (almost) none 1 1 out of 4 2 2 out of 4 3 3 out of 4 4 4 (almost) all

ORIENTATION TOWARDS NEWLY-PUBLISHED BOOKS		
How important is it to you that you are informed about the most recently published books belonging to the genre category from which you read books?	1 2 3 4 5	not important at all not important neither important nor unimportant important very important
How informed are you on the most recently published books belonging to the genre category from which you read books?	1 2 3 4 5	not informed at all not informed somewhat informed informed well-informed
OPINION LEADERSHIP		
If you talk about books with others, how often do these others ask you which books you can recommend to them to read?	1 2 3 4 5	(almost) never sometimes regularly often very often
OPINION SEEKING		
If you talk about books with others, how often do you usually ask others which books they can recommend to you to read?	1 2 3 4 5	(almost) never sometimes regularly often very often
INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION		
In general, how often do you talk about books with others? **(R)**	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	one or more times a week about once in two weeks about once every three weeks about once a month about once every two to three months about once every four to six months less often
MASS-MEDIA USAGE		
On average, how often do you read about books in newspapers, magazines or (weekly) papers? **(R)**	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	one or more times a week about once every two weeks about once every three weeks about once a month about once every two to three months about once every four to six months less often
On average, how often do you watch programs about books on television? **(R)**	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	one or more times a week about once in two weeks about once every three weeks about once a month about once every two to three months about once every four to six months less often

DISTRIBUTION-CHANNEL VISITING	
On average, how often do you visit a location where fiction books are sold (e.g., bookstore, branch of a book club, book market, etc.)? **(R)**	1 one or more times a week 2 about once every two weeks 3 about once every three weeks 4 about once a month 5 about once every two to three months 6 about once every four to six months 7 less often
Are you a member of a library?	1 yes 2 no
Do you ever borrow books from the library using someone else's library pass?	1 yes 2 no
On average, how often do you visit a library to borrow books for yourself? **(R)**	1 one or more times a week 2 about once every two weeks 3 about once every three weeks 4 about once a month 5 about once every two to three months 6 about once every four to six months 7 less often
INVOLVEMENT	
How important is reading to you personally?	1 not important at all 2 not important 3 neither important nor unimportant 4 important 5 very important
EXPERTISE	
Which names of Dutch and/or Foreign authors can you name? Write these names down in the column 'author'	Open question
Of which of these authors have you ever read one or more titles?	Open question
Which book stores in Tilburg can you name?	Open question
Which publishing houses can you name?	Open question
Which prizes and awards for books can you name?	Open question
Which book critics can you name?	Open question
Which (weekly)magazines or newspapers can you name of which you know that they contain a book section?	Open question
Which T.V. programs about books can you name?	Open question

SELF-ASSESSED KNOWLEDGE	
How would you describe your knowledge of books?	1 poor 2 moderate 3 reasonable 4 good 5 very good
PROTOCOL ANALYSIS ITEMS	
What is the title of the book you have most recently finished?	0 no title mentioned 1 title mentioned
Who is the author?	0 no author mentioned 1 author mentioned
To which genre does the book belong?	0 no genre mentioned 1 genre mentioned
Is the book borrowed or bought?	1 borrowed from the library 2 borrowed from other 3 bought 4 gift
Why exactly did you start reading this book	Open question
Are you presently reading a book?	1 yes 2 no
If so, what is the title of the book?	0 no title mentioned 1 title mentioned
Who is the author?	0 no author mentioned 1 author mentioned
To which genre does the book belong?	0 no genre mentioned 1 genre mentioned
Is the book borrowed or bought?	1 borrowed from the library 2 borrowed from other 3 bought 4 gift
Why exactly did you start reading this book	Open question
Which of the authors you have already read, do you intend to continue reading?	Open question
Can you name a title by one of these authors that you would like to read?	Open question
Why would you like to read this title?	Open question
Of the authors you have not read, which would you like to read?	Open question
Can you name a title by one of these authors that you would like to read?	Open question
Why do you want to read this title?	Open question

MISCELLANEOUS	
Are you member of a book club (e.g., ECI)?	1 yes 2 no
SOCIODEMOGRAPHICS	
What is your gender?	1 male 2 female
What is your year of birth?	19__
What is the highest level of education you have completed?	1 primary education (LO) 2 junior vocational training (LBO) 3 junior general secondary education (MAVO) 4 senior vocational training (MBO) 5 senior general secondary /pre-university education (HAVO/VWO) 6 vocational colleges (HBO) 7 university (WO) 8 post-doctoral education 9 missing answer

APPENDIX 5.2

Protocol coding scheme for study 2

Motives for reading, borrowing, or buying a fiction title are based on the following fundamental circumstances:

A1 subject's own (previous) reading experiences (e.g., read something in book, read book)
A2 (generalisations of) previously read fiction titles by one and the same author (e.g., read book by that author and liked it)
A3 (generalisations of) previously read fiction titles about one and the same theme (e.g. read book about that theme and liked it)
A4 (generalisations of) previously read fiction titles from one and the same genre (e.g. read book belonging to that genre and liked it)

A5 information obtained from mass-media sources (e.g., saw play, movie, book review, interview with author, etc.)
A6 information obtained from word-of-mouth, recommendations (or imitations) by others (e.g., was told that the book was good)
A7 information obtained from (previous) choice-process(es) or ongoing searches in retail outlets or public library (e.g., leafed through a book)
A8 information obtained from interpersonal communication in course, class, or teaching environment (e.g., discussed book in school)
A9 (information drawn from) the cover of the book (e.g., back flap, title)
A10 unknown/unmentioned/unclear

Book in question is known from:

KT1 references in previously read fiction titles
KT2 mass-media sources (e.g., reviews, film)
KT3 word-of-mouth, recommendations (or imitations) by others (e.g., heard others talk about book)
KT4 (previous) choice-process(es) or ongoing searches in retail outlets or library (e.g., book was seen for the first time in library)
KT5 interpersonal communication in course, class, or teaching environment (e.g., heard about book for the first time at school)

KT6 another source
KT7 unknown/unmentioned

KT8 not applicable. -> no title mentioned, just name of the author

APPENDIX 6.1

Operationalisations study 3

Item	Answering categories
READING INTENSITY	
On average, how often do you spend time reading books? **(R)**	1 one or more times a week 2 once every two to three weeks 3 about once a month 4 about once every two to three months 5 about once every four to six months 6 less often 9 missing answer
When was the last time you read a book? **(R)**	1 one week ago or sooner 2 two or three weeks ago 3 about one month ago 4 about two to three months ago 5 about four to six months ago 6 longer than six months ago 9 missing answer
How long ago did you finish a book? **(R)**	1 one week ago or sooner 2 two or three weeks ago 3 about one month ago 4 about two to three months ago 5 about four to six months ago 6 longer than six months ago 9 missing answer
On average, how many books have you finished in the previous twelve months? **(R)**	1 one or more books a week 2 one book every two to three weeks 3 one book a month 4 one book every two to three months 5 one book every four to six months 6 less than one book every six months 9 missing answer

GENRE PREFERENCES	
I would like to get an impression of the extent to which you have been reading books from each genre category in the previous twelve months. You can indicate this by dividing 100 points among the three genre categories, such that the points reflect the extent to which you have been reading books belonging to each category. You may now divide the points:	Mystery/suspense: ____ points Romance: ____ points Literature: ____ points 999 missing answer
ORIENTATION TOWARDS NEWLY-PUBLISHED BOOKS	
I am very interested in newly-published books	1 I don't agree at all 5 I completely agree 9 missing answer
I am well-informed on the most recently-published books	1 I don't agree at all 5 I completely agree 9 missing answer
How often do you read a newly-published books before hearing about them from others?	1 never 5 very often 9 missing answer
VARIETY SEEKING	
Event though there are many good genres, I tend to read books belonging to the same genre **(R)**	1 I don't agree at all 5 I completely agree 9 missing answer
I would rather stick to a theme about which I have read before than trying books about themes that are new to me **(R)**	1 I don't agree at all 5 I completely agree 9 missing answer
I think of myself as a theme-loyal reader **(R)**	1 I don't agree at all 5 I completely agree 9 missing answer
When I see a book by an author that is unknown to me, I am not afraid of giving it a try	1 I don't agree at all 5 I completely agree 9 missing answer
When I go to a bookstore or a public library to choose a book, I feel it is safer to choose a book by an author that is familiar to me **(R)**	1 I don't agree at all 5 I completely agree 9 missing answer
If I like a certain genre, I rarely switch from it just to try something different **(R)**	1 I don't agree at all 5 I completely agree 9 missing answer
I am very cautious about trying books about themes I am not familiar with **(R)**	1 I don't agree at all 5 I completely agree 9 missing answer
I strive for variation in my reading behaviour by reading books by unfamiliar authors	1 I don't agree at all 5 I completely agree 9 missing answer
I rarely choose books belonging to genres which I am uncertain about how they will please me **(R)**	1 I don't agree at all 5 I completely agree 9 missing answer

I usually read the same kinds of books **(R)**	1 5 9	I don't agree at all I completely agree missing answer
OPINION LEADERSHIP		
How often do others ask you about books you have read?	1 5 9	never very often missing answer
How often do others ask you for information about books?	1 5 9	never very often missing answer
How often do others ask you to advise them on which books to read?	1 5 9	never very often missing answer
How often are you the one who starts talking about books when in the company of others?	1 5 9	never very often missing answer
How often do you notice that people take your advice to read a specific book?	1 5 9	never very often missing answer
When talking about books, how often do you advise others, without being asked, to read a book you liked very much?	1 5 9	never very often missing answer
OPINION SEEKING		
How often do you ask others for their opinion about a book before you read it?	1 5 9	never very often missing answer
How often do you ask others for their opinion about books you are considering reading?	1 5 9	never very often missing answer
How often do you ask others which books they recommend for reading?	1 5 9	never very often missing answer
INTERPERSONAL COMMUNICATION		
On average, how often do you talk about books with others? **(R)**	1 2 3 4 5 6 7 9	one or more times a week about once every two weeks about once every three weeks about once a month about once every two to three months about once every four to six months less often missing answer

MASS-MEDIA USAGE	
On average, how often do you read about books in newspapers, magazines or (weekly) papers? **(R)**	1 one or more times a week 2 about once every two weeks 3 about once every three weeks 4 about once a month 5 about once every two to three months 6 about once every four to six months 7 less often 9 missing answer
RETAIL BROWSING	
How often do you visit a bookstore for its fiction without having the intention of buying a particular book? **(R)**	1 one or more times a week 2 about once every two weeks 3 about once every three weeks 4 about once a month 5 about once every two to three months 6 about once every four to six months 7 less often 9 missing answer
DISTRIBUTION-CHANNEL VISITING	
On average, how often do you visit a place where fiction books are sold (e.g., bookstore, branch of a book club, book market, etc.)? **(R)**	1 one or more times a week 2 about once every two weeks 3 about once every three weeks 4 about once a month 5 about once every two to three months 6 about once every four to six months 7 less often 9 missing answer
Are you a member of a public library?	1 yes 2 no, but I do borrow books on the library pass of someone else 3 no 9 missing answer
On average, how often do you visit a library to borrow books for yourself? **(R)**	1 one or more times a week 2 about once every two weeks 3 about once every three weeks 4 about once a month 5 about once every two to three months 6 about once every four to six months 7 less often 8 not applicable 9 missing answer
INVOLVEMENT	
Reading books is more than a distraction to me. It is a hobby	1 I don't agree at all 5 I completely agree 9 missing answer

Reading books is very important to me	1 5 9	I don't agree at all I completely agree missing answer
If I don't read a book on a regular basis, it feels as if something is missing	1 5 9	I don't agree at all I completely agree missing answer
Reading books is one of my favourite leisure activities	1 5 9	I don't agree at all I completely agree missing answer
What you read is at least as important as the fact that you read	1 5 9	I don't agree at all I completely agree missing answer
A well-lined bookcase is a precious possession	1 5 9	I don't agree at all I completely agree missing answer
The books I read are a reflection of my self-image	1 5 9	I don't agree at all I completely agree missing answer
Reading books is an essential part of my character	1 5 9	I don't agree at all I completely agree missing answer
The books I read communicate something of myself as a person	1 5 9	I don't agree at all I completely agree missing answer
NEED FOR COGNITION		
I prefer complex to simple problems	1 5 9	I don't agree at all I completely agree missing answer
I like to have the responsibility of handling a situation that requires a lot of thinking	1 5 9	I don't agree at all I completely agree missing answer
I would rather do something that requires little thought than something that is sure to challenge my thinking abilities **(R)**	1 5 9	I don't agree at all I completely agree missing answer
I try to anticipate and avoid situations where there is a good chance I will have to think in depth about something **(R)**	1 5 9	I don't agree at all I completely agree missing answer
I find satisfaction in deliberating long and hard about a given issue	1 5 9	I don't agree at all I completely agree missing answer
I like tasks that require little thought once I have learned them **(R)**	1 5 9	I don't agree at all I completely agree missing answer
I really enjoy a task that involves coming up with new solutions to problems	1 5 9	I don't agree at all I completely agree missing answer

Learning new ways of thinking does not excite me very much (**R**)	1 I don't agree at all 5 I completely agree 9 missing answer
EXPERTISE	
Which names of Dutch and/or Foreign authors of which you have ever read a book (or a part of one), can you name spontaneously?	Open question 0 none 99 missing answer
SELF-ASSESSED KNOWLEDGE	
How familiar are you with reading books?	1 not familiar at all 2 not familiar 3 somewhat familiar 4 familiar 5 very familiar 9 missing answer
How would you describe your knowledge of books?	1 poor 2 moderate 3 reasonable 4 good 5 very good 9 missing answer
MISCELLANEOUS	
Are you member of a book club (e.g., ECI)?	1 yes 2 no 9 missing answer
SOCIODEMOGRAPHICS	
What is your gender?	1 male 2 female 9 missing answer
What is your year of birth?	19__ 99 missing answer
What is the highest level of education you have completed?	1 primary education (LO) 2 junior vocational training (LBO) 3 junior general secondary education (MAVO) 4 senior vocational training (MBO) 5 senior general secondary /pre-university education (HAVO/VWO) 6 vocational colleges (HBO) 7 university (WO) 8 post-doctoral education 9 missing answer

What is your main occupation?	1	I have a part-time/full-time job for __ hours a week
	2	I am an early retirer
	3	I am unemployed
	4	I am a full-time homemaker
	5	I am a student
	6	different:_____
	9	missing answer

APPENDIX 6.2

Correlations

		LEESN	FLITN	FROMN	SPANDU	VARIET	INNOVN	MOTIV	OPLEID	LITMOT	LITOPL	ROMMO	ROMOP	SPANMO	SPANO	NNOMO	NOPLEI	VARMO	VAROPL
Pearson Correlati	LEESN	1.000	.251**	.399**	.102	.202**	.380**	-.443**	-.179*	-.072	.088	-.236**	-.126	.299**	-.006	-.185**	.038	-.091	.061
	FLITN	.251**	1.000	-.583**	-.310**	.333**	.403**	-.070	.078	.278**	.083	-.343**	-.108	.214**	.288**	.085	-.016	.062	-.067
	FROMN	.399**	-.583**	1.000	-.107	-.140**	-.095	-.209**	-.118	-.317**	-.110	.087	.031	.105	-.131	-.141**	.025	-.107	.041
	FSPAND	.102	-.310**	-.107	1.000	-.056	-.059	.010	-.067	-.008	.141**	.084	-.077	-.087	-.178**	.018	.114	-.044	.135
	VARIETI	.202**	.333**	-.140**	-.056	1.000	.310**	-.084	.062	.051	-.078	-.111	.045	.083	.221**	.007	-.101	.021	-.088
	INNOVN	.380**	.403**	-.095	-.059	.310**	1.000	-.181**	.036	.085	-.021	-.156**	.028	.303**	.198**	.041	-.027	.009	-.095
	LMOTIV	-.443**	-.070	-.209**	.010	-.084	-.181**	1.000	.421**	.295**	.055	.428**	.171**	-.098	-.019	.317**	.076	.236**	-.011
	LOPLEID	-.179*	.078	-.118	-.067	.062	.036	.421**	1.000	.198**	.139**	.102	.491**	-.088	.140**	.137**	.184**	.082	.088
	LITMOT	-.072	.278**	-.317**	-.008	.051	.085	.295**	.198**	1.000	.266**	-.569**	-.044	-.333**	-.063	.444**	.166**	.289**	.060
	LITOPL	.088	.083	-.110	.141**	-.078	-.021	.055	.139**	.266**	1.000	-.141**	-.567**	-.106	-.416**	.070	.386**	.087	.473**
	FROMM	-.236**	-.343**	.087	.084	-.111	-.156**	.428**	.102	-.569**	-.141**	1.000	.235**	-.111	-.104	-.187**	-.069	-.087	-.055
	FROMO	-.126	-.108	.031	-.077	.045	.028	.171**	.491**	-.044	-.567**	.235**	1.000	-.129	.043	.025	-.141**	-.012	-.244**
	FSPANN	.299**	.214**	.105	-.087	.083	.303**	-.098	-.088	-.333**	-.106	-.111	-.129	1.000	.362**	-.088	-.046	-.158**	-.091
	FSPANO	-.006	.288**	-.131	-.178**	.221**	.198**	-.019	.140**	-.063	-.416**	-.104	.043	.362**	1.000	.013	-.199**	-.078	-.197**
	INNOMO	-.185**	.085	-.141**	.018	.007	.041	.317**	.137**	.444**	.070	-.187**	.025	-.088	.013	1.000	.324**	.305**	.015
	INOPLEI	.038	-.016	.025	.114	-.101	-.027	.076	.184**	.166**	.386**	-.069	-.141**	-.046	-.199**	.324**	1.000	.088	.384**
	VARMOT	-.091	.062	-.107	-.044	.021	.009	.236**	.082	.289**	.087	-.087	-.012	-.158**	-.078	.305**	.088	1.000	.189**
	VAROPL	.061	-.067	.041	.135	-.088	-.095	-.011	.088	.060	.473**	-.055	-.244**	-.091	-.197**	.015	.384**	.189**	1.000
Sig. (2-tailed)	LEESN	.	.000	.000	.140	.003	.000	.000	.010	.308	.213	.001	.072	.000	.935	.008	.585	.192	.381
	FLITN	.000	.	.000	.000	.000	.000	.322	.270	.000	.238	.000	.126	.002	.000	.227	.826	.384	.341
	FROMN	.000	.000	.	.129	.045	.178	.003	.095	.000	.120	.217	.659	.136	.063	.045	.721	.130	.566
	FSPAND	.140	.000	.129	.	.418	.398	.881	.337	.914	.045	.234	.273	.212	.010	.801	.101	.527	.053
	VARIETI	.003	.000	.045	.418	.	.000	.228	.374	.471	.271	.114	.519	.233	.001	.919	.147	.766	.205
	INNOVN	.000	.000	.178	.398	.000	.	.009	.601	.227	.765	.026	.694	.000	.004	.552	.695	.894	.171
	LMOTIV	.000	.322	.003	.881	.228	.009	.	.000	.000	.433	.000	.015	.157	.781	.000	.277	.001	.875
	LOPLEID	.010	.270	.095	.337	.374	.601	.000	.	.005	.047	.147	.000	.207	.043	.049	.008	.240	.205
	LITMOT	.308	.000	.000	.914	.471	.227	.000	.005	.	.000	.000	.538	.000	.374	.000	.018	.000	.400
	LITOPL	.213	.238	.120	.045	.271	.765	.433	.047	.000	.	.046	.000	.133	.000	.322	.000	.218	.000
	FROMM	.001	.000	.217	.234	.114	.026	.000	.147	.000	.046	.	.001	.116	.139	.008	.331	.220	.436
	FROMO	.072	.126	.659	.273	.519	.694	.015	.000	.538	.000	.001	.	.067	.542	.725	.044	.869	.000
	FSPANN	.000	.002	.136	.212	.233	.000	.157	.207	.000	.133	.116	.067	.	.000	.207	.507	.023	.189
	FSPANO	.935	.000	.063	.010	.001	.004	.781	.043	.374	.000	.139	.542	.000	.	.857	.004	.260	.004
	INNOMO	.008	.227	.045	.801	.919	.552	.000	.049	.000	.322	.008	.725	.207	.857	.	.000	.000	.831
	INOPLEI	.585	.826	.721	.101	.147	.695	.277	.008	.018	.000	.331	.044	.507	.004	.000		.205	.000
	VARMOT	.192	.384	.130	.527	.766	.894	.001	.240	.000	.218	.220	.869	.023	.260	.000	.205		.006
	VAROPL	.381	.341	.566	.053	.205	.171	.875	.205	.400	.000	.436	.000	.189	.004	.831	.000	.006	.
N	LEESN	209	203	204	209	209	209	208	208	202	203	203	204	209	209	208	208	208	208
	FLITN	203	203	203	203	203	203	202	202	202	202	202	202	203	203	202	202	202	202
	FROMN	204	203	204	204	204	204	203	203	202	202	203	203	204	204	203	203	203	203
	FSPAND	209	203	204	209	209	209	208	208	202	203	203	204	209	209	208	208	208	208
	VARIETI	209	203	204	209	209	209	208	208	202	203	203	204	209	209	208	208	208	208
	INNOVN	209	203	204	209	209	209	208	208	202	203	203	204	209	209	208	208	208	208
	LMOTIV	208	202	203	208	208	208	208	207	202	202	203	203	208	208	208	207	208	207
	LOPLEID	208	202	203	208	208	208	207	208	201	203	202	204	208	208	207	208	207	208
	LITMOT	202	202	202	202	202	202	202	201	202	201	202	201	202	202	202	201	202	201
	LITOPL	203	202	202	203	203	203	202	203	201	203	201	203	203	203	202	203	202	203
	FROMM	203	202	203	203	203	203	203	202	202	201	203	202	203	203	203	202	203	202
	FROMO	204	202	203	204	204	204	203	204	201	203	202	204	204	204	203	204	203	204
	FSPANN	209	203	204	209	209	209	208	208	202	203	203	204	209	209	208	208	208	208
	FSPANO	209	203	204	209	209	209	208	208	202	203	203	204	209	209	208	208	208	208
	INNOMO	208	202	203	208	208	208	208	207	202	202	203	203	208	208	208	207	208	207
	INOPLEI	208	202	203	208	208	208	208	207	208	201	203	202	204	208	208	207	208	207
	VARMOT	208	202	203	208	208	208	208	207	202	202	203	203	208	208	208	207	208	207
	VAROPL	208	202	203	208	208	208	207	208	201	203	202	204	208	208	207	208	207	208

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

APPENDIX 6.3

The individual effects of consumption, motivation, and ability on expertise

Independent variable (y):	B	Se B	Beta	t	Sig. t
MODEL 1					
main effects					
reading intensity	-.737	.464	-.183	-1.590	N.S.
amount of literature read	.022	.004	.736	5.147	**p<.01**
amount of romances read	.012	.004	.414	2.899	**p<.01**
amount of mystery/suspense read (dummy)	2.271	.987	.205	2.301	p<.05
orientation towards newly-published books	1.800	.403	.300	4.463	**p<.01**
variety seeking	-.665	.480	-.083	-1.386	N.S.
MODEL 2					
main effects					
reading intensity	-.634	.447	-.158	-1.419	N.S.
amount of literature read	.018	.004	.588	4.174	**p<.01**
amount of romances read	.010	.004	.330	2.408	p<.05
amount of mystery/suspense read (dummy)	2.198	.944	.198	2.329	p<.05
orientation towards newly-published books	1.485	.404	.248	3.673	**p<.01**
variety seeking	-.665	.480	-.083	-1.386	N.S.
motivation	.149	.099	.108	1.509	N.S.
ability	.846	.221	.236	3.835	**p<.01**
MODEL 3					
main effects					
reading intensity	-.546	.517	-.136	-1.057	N.S.
amount of literature read	.016	.005	.535	3.440	**p<.01**
amount of romances read	.010	.005	.323	2.129	p<.05
amount of mystery/suspense read (dummy)	1.680	.985	.151	1.705	N.S.
orientation towards newly-published books	1.438	.422	.240	3.410	**p<.01**

Independent variable (y):	B	Se B	Beta	t	Sig. t
variety seeking	-.483	.482	-.061	-1.003	N.S.
motivation	.084	.157	.061	.532	N.S.
ability	1.038	.374	.302	2.899	**p<.01**
interaction effects					
reading intensity*motivation	-.102	.168	-.104	-.607	N.S.
reading intensity*ability	-.055	.369	-.021	-.150	N.S.
literature read*motivation	.001	.002	.167	.816	N.S.
literature read*ability	.001	.004	.026	.155	N.S.
romances read*motivation	.001	.002	.110	.580	N.S.
romances read*ability	-.001	.004	-.044	-.268	N.S.
mystery/suspense read*motivation	.149	.311	.070	.479	N.S.
mystery/suspense read*ability	-.454	.770	-.085	-.589	N.S.
orientation towards newly-published books*motivation	.285	.104	.191	2.741	**p<.01**
orientation towards newly-published books*ability	-.163	.285	-.038	-.572	N.S.
variety seeking*motivation	-.159	.132	-.074	-1.200	N.S.
variety seeking*ability	.387	.356	.073	1.088	N.S.

B=unstandardised regression coefficient; Se B=standard error of estimation; Beta=standardised regression coefficient; t=t-value; sig. t=significance t-value (two-tailed); N.S.=not significant (p>.01)

APPENDIX 6.4

Correlations

		OPININ	INFON	INTERN	MOTIVN	NOPLEID	OPINMOT	OPOPLEID	INFOMOT	INOPLEID	INTEMOT	INTEROP
Pearson Correlation	OPININ	1.000	.550**	.698**	.511**	.282**	.034	-.079	.041	.414**	-.015	-.076
	INFON	.550**	1.000	.415**	.132	.209**	.040	-.109	-.029	.204**	.093	-.092
	INTERN	.698**	.415**	1.000	.489**	.237**	-.016	-.073	.089	.288**	-.065	-.083
	MOTIVN	.511**	.132	.489**	1.000	.335**	-.077	-.012	.046	.247**	-.068	-.084
	NOPLEID	.282**	.209**	.237**	.335**	1.000	-.007	-.034	-.002	.246**	-.087	-.083
	OPINMOT	.034	.040	-.016	-.077	-.007	1.000	.284**	.589**	.090	.662**	.245**
	OPOPLEID	-.079	-.109	-.073	-.012	-.034	.284**	1.000	.159*	-.207**	.227**	.663**
	INFOMOT	.041	-.029	.089	.046	-.002	.589**	.159*	1.000	.032	.428**	.179*
	INOPLEID	.414**	.204**	.288**	.247**	.246**	.090	-.207**	.032	1.000	.066	-.156*
	INTEMOT	-.015	.093	-.065	-.068	-.087	.662**	.227**	.428**	.066	1.000	.339**
	INTEROP	-.076	-.092	-.083	-.084	-.083	.245**	.663**	.179*	-.156*	.339**	1.000
Sig. (2-tailed)	OPININ	.	.000	.000	.000	.000	.625	.264	.557	.000	.831	.279
	INFON	.000	.	.000	.060	.003	.571	.119	.684	.004	.184	.191
	INTERN	.000	.000	.	.000	.001	.822	.297	.206	.000	.351	.239
	MOTIVN	.000	.060	.000	.	.000	.275	.862	.512	.000	.334	.230
	NOPLEID	.000	.003	.001	.000	.	.924	.628	.983	.000	.217	.239
	OPINMOT	.625	.571	.822	.275	.924	.	.000	.000	.200	.000	.000
	OPOPLEID	.264	.119	.297	.862	.628	.000	.	.023	.003	.001	.000
	INFOMOT	.557	.684	.206	.512	.983	.000	.023	.	.651	.000	.011
	INOPLEID	.000	.004	.000	.000	.000	.200	.003	.651	.	.352	.026
	INTEMOT	.831	.184	.351	.334	.217	.000	.001	.000	.352	.	.000
	INTEROP	.279	.191	.239	.230	.239	.000	.000	.011	.026	.000	.
N	OPININ	205	205	205	204	204	204	204	204	204	204	204
	INFON	205	205	205	204	204	204	204	204	204	204	204
	INTERN	205	205	206	205	205	204	204	204	205	205	205
	MOTIVN	204	204	205	205	204	204	203	204	204	205	204
	NOPLEID	204	204	205	204	205	203	204	203	205	204	205
	OPINMOT	204	204	204	204	203	204	203	204	203	204	203
	OPOPLEID	204	204	204	203	204	203	204	203	204	203	204
	INFOMOT	204	204	204	204	203	204	203	204	203	204	203
	INOPLEID	204	204	205	204	205	203	204	203	205	204	205
	INTEMOT	204	204	205	205	204	204	203	204	204	205	204
	INTEROP	204	204	205	204	205	203	204	203	205	204	205

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

APPENDIX 6.5

The individual effects of NMDIC, motivation, and ability on expertise

Independent variable (y):	B	Se B	Beta	t	Sig. t
MODEL 1					
main effects					
opinion leadership	2.697	.429	.538	6.293	**p<.01**
opinion seeking	.237	.379	.042	.626	N.S.
interpersonal communicational behaviour	.178	.211	.066	.841	N.S.
MODEL 2					
main effects					
opinion leadership	2.077	.428	.414	4.850	**p<.01**
opinion seeking	.391	.368	.070	1.062	N.S.
interpersonal communication	-.002	.204	-.001	-.007	N.S.
motivation	.262	.092	.189	2.835	**p<.01**
ability	.755	.207	.208	3.649	**p<.01**
MODEL 3					
main effects					
opinion leadership	2.019	.420	.403	4.810	**p<.01**
opinion seeking	.517	.355	.092	1.457	N.S.
interpersonal communicational behaviour	-.037	.194	-.014	-.190	N.S.
motivation	.320	.088	.230	3.629	**p<.01**
ability	.753	.198	.207	3.806	**p<.01**

Independent variable (y):	B	Se B	Beta	t	Sig. t
interaction effects					
opinion leadership*motivation	.377	.101	.290	3.745	**p<.01**
opinion leadership*ability	-.276	.225	-.085	-1.225	N.S.
opinion seeking*motivation	.129	.087	.093	1.484	N.S.
opinion seeking*ability	-.121	.098	-.070	-1226	N.S.
interpersonal communication*motivation	-.010	.051	-.132	-1.865	N.S.
interpersonal communication*ability	.147	.124	.082	1.180	N.S.

B=unstandardised regression coefficient; Se B=standard error of estimation; Beta=standardised regression coefficient; t=t-value; sig. t=significance t-value (two-tailed); N.S.=not significant (p>.01)

APPENDIX 6.6

Correlations

		MOTIVN	NOPLEID	MASSN	RETAILN	WINKN	BIEBN	MASSMOT	MASSOP	RETMOT	RETOP	WINKMOT	WINKOP	BIEBMOT	BIEBOP
Pearson Correlation	MOTIVN	1.000	.320**	.403**	.358**	.404**	.196**	-.117	.020	-.150*	-.126	-.114	-.034	-.177*	-.060
	NOPLEID	.320**	1.000	.223**	.289**	.346**	-.158*	.022	.059	-.122	-.113	-.032	-.177*	-.058	.071
	MASSN	.403**	.223**	1.000	.511**	.451**	.179*	-.205**	-.104	-.037	-.034	-.071	-.003	-.036	-.134
	RETAILN	.358**	.289**	.511**	1.000	.731**	.138	-.041	-.032	-.044	-.062	-.119	-.051	-.088	-.078
	WINKN	.404**	.346**	.451**	.731**	1.000	.130	-.065	.000	-.107	-.051	-.059	-.024	-.120	.004
	BIEBN	.196**	-.158*	.179*	.138	.130	1.000	-.039	-.132	-.087	-.082	-.131	.002	.086	-.008
	MASSMOT	-.117	.022	-.205**	-.041	-.065	-.039	1.000	.352**	.350**	.037	.267**	.048	.064	-.024
	MASSOP	.020	.059	-.104	-.032	.000	-.132	.352**	1.000	.069	.448**	.098	.415**	-.128	.123
	RETMOT	-.150*	-.122	-.037	-.044	-.107	-.087	.350**	.069	1.000	.261**	.654**	.203**	.142*	.099
	RETOP	-.126	-.113	-.034	-.062	-.051	-.082	.037	.448**	.261**	1.000	.231**	.760**	-.020	.003
	WINKMOT	-.114	-.032	-.071	-.119	-.059	-.131	.267**	.098	.654**	.231**	1.000	.260**	.140*	.102
	WINKOP	-.034	-.177*	-.003	-.051	-.024	.002	.048	.415**	.203**	.760**	.260**	1.000	-.041	-.023
	BIEBMOT	-.177*	-.058	-.036	-.088	-.120	.086	.064	-.128	.142*	-.020	.140*	-.041	1.000	.295**
	BIEBOP	-.060	.071	-.134	-.078	.004	-.008	-.024	.123	.099	.003	.102	-.023	.295**	1.000
Sig. (2-tailed)	MOTIVN	.	.000	.000	.000	.000	.006	.099	.779	.034	.076	.108	.631	.013	.403
	NOPLEID	.000	.	.001	.000	.000	.026	.756	.405	.086	.110	.658	.012	.418	.323
	MASSN	.000	.001	.	.000	.000	.012	.004	.142	.603	.629	.321	.963	.620	.060
	RETAILN	.000	.000	.000	.	.000	.052	.567	.648	.534	.385	.094	.474	.217	.279
	WINKN	.000	.000	.000	.000	.	.067	.363	.996	.131	.473	.411	.731	.094	.959
	BIEBN	.006	.026	.012	.052	.067	.	.584	.064	.221	.251	.067	.973	.231	.910
	MASSMOT	.099	.756	.004	.567	.363	.584	.	.000	.000	.608	.000	.505	.371	.744
	MASSOP	.779	.405	.142	.648	.996	.064	.000	.	.330	.000	.171	.000	.073	.084
	RETMOT	.034	.086	.603	.534	.131	.221	.000	.330	.	.000	.000	.004	.046	.168
	RETOP	.076	.110	.629	.385	.473	.251	.608	.000	.000	.	.001	.000	.778	.972
	WINKMOT	.108	.658	.321	.094	.411	.067	.000	.171	.000	.001	.	.000	.049	.155
	WINKOP	.631	.012	.963	.474	.731	.973	.505	.000	.004	.000	.000	.	.568	.752
	BIEBMOT	.013	.418	.620	.217	.094	.231	.371	.073	.046	.778	.049	.568	.	.000
	BIEBOP	.403	.323	.060	.279	.959	.910	.744	.084	.168	.972	.155	.752	.000	.
N	MOTIVN	200	199	200	200	199	197	200	199	200	199	199	198	197	196
	NOPLEID	199	200	200	200	199	197	199	200	199	200	198	199	196	197
	MASSN	200	200	201	201	200	198	200	200	200	200	199	199	197	197
	RETAILN	200	200	201	201	200	198	200	200	200	200	199	199	197	197
	WINKN	199	199	200	200	200	198	199	199	199	199	199	199	197	197
	BIEBN	197	197	198	198	198	198	197	197	197	197	197	197	197	197
	MASSMOT	200	199	200	200	199	197	200	199	200	199	199	198	197	196
	MASSOP	199	200	200	200	199	197	199	200	199	200	198	199	196	197
	RETMOT	200	199	200	200	199	197	200	199	200	199	199	198	197	196
	RETOP	199	200	200	200	199	197	199	200	199	200	198	199	196	197
	WINKMOT	199	198	199	199	199	197	199	198	199	198	199	198	197	196
	WINKOP	198	199	199	199	199	197	198	199	198	199	198	199	196	197
	BIEBMOT	197	196	197	197	197	197	197	196	197	196	197	196	197	196
	BIEBOP	196	197	197	197	197	197	196	197	196	197	196	197	196	197

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

*. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

APPENDIX 6.7

The individual effects of MDIC, motivation, and ability on expertise

Independent variable (y):	B	Se B	Beta	t	Sig. t
MODEL 1					
main effects					
mass-media usage	.369	.162	.168	2.284	p<.05.
retail browsing	-.182	.231	-.075	-.786	N.S.
retail visiting	1.222	.245	.460	4.993	**p<.01**
library visiting	.086	.128	.043	.677	N.S.
MODEL 2					
main effects					
mass-media usage	.185	.155	.084	1.194	N.S.
retail browsing	-.228	.215	-.094	-1.060	N.S.
retail visiting	.888	.235	.334	3.770	**p<.01**
library visiting	.136	.124	.068	1.097	N.S.
motivation	.297	.086	.234	3.434	**p<.01**
ability	.754	.214	.231	3.524	**p<.01**
MODEL 3					
main effects					
mass-media usage	.211	.158	.096	1.336	N.S.
retail browsing	-.174	.215	-.072	-.809	N.S.
retail visiting	.849	.235	.319	3.610	**p<.01**
library visiting	.196	.125	.097	1.570	N.S.
motivation	.333	.087	.263	3.821	**p<.01**
ability	.671	.218	.206	3.084	**p<.01**
Interaction effects					
mass-media usage*motivation	.036	.044	.058	.830	N.S.
mass-media usage*ability	.093	.109	.064	.859	N.S.
retail browsing*motivation	-.071	.052	-.112	-1.357	N.S.
retail browsing*ability	.345	.157	.206	2.192	p<.05

Independent variable (y):	B	Se B	Beta	t	Sig. t
retail visiting*motivation	.155	.058	.210	2.666	**p<.01**
retail visiting*ability	-.350	.165	-.195	-2.124	p<.05
library visiting*motivation	.016	.033	.031	.490	N.S.
library visiting*ability	-.091	.085	-.067	-1.064	N.S.

B=unstandardised regression coefficient; Se B=standard error of estimation; Beta=standardised regression coefficient; t=t-value; sig. t=significance t-value (two-tailed); N.S.=not significant (p>.01)

APPENDIX 6.8

Correlations

		FLITN	INNOVN	OPININ	WINKN	MOTIVN	NOPLEID	INNOMOT	OPINMOT	WINKMOT
Pearson Correlation	FLITN	1,000	,405**	,388**	,396**	,368**	,332**	,087	,116	,029
	INNOVN	,405**	1,000	,628**	,461**	,484**	,205**	,060	,069	-,079
	OPININ	,388**	,628**	1,000	,468**	,521**	,288**	,065	,019	-,044
	WINKN	,396**	,461**	,468**	1,000	,410**	,353**	-,070	-,036	-,053
	MOTIVN	,368**	,484**	,521**	,410**	1,000	,333**	-,040	-,075	-,085
	NOPLEID	,332**	,205**	,288**	,353**	,333**	1,000	,040	-,010	-,016
	INNOMOT	,087	,060	,065	-,070	-,040	,040	1,000	,681**	,393**
	OPINMOT	,116	,069	,019	-,036	-,075	-,010	,681**	1,000	,541**
	WINKMOT	,029	-,079	-,044	-,053	-,085	-,016	,393**	,541**	1,000
Sig. (2-tailed)	FLITN	.	,000	,000	,000	,000	,000	,227	,110	,689
	INNOVN	,000	.	,000	,000	,000	,004	,398	,334	,266
	OPININ	,000	,000	.	,000	,000	,000	,362	,785	,537
	WINKN	,000	,000	,000	.	,000	,000	,324	,614	,456
	MOTIVN	,000	,000	,000	,000	.	,000	,571	,294	,233
	NOPLEID	,000	,004	,000	,000	,000	.	,575	,890	,829
	INNOMOT	,227	,398	,362	,324	,571	,575	.	,000	,000
	OPINMOT	,110	,334	,785	,614	,294	,890	,000	.	,000
	WINKMOT	,689	,266	,537	,456	,233	,829	,000	,000	.
N	FLITN	194	194	193	193	193	193	193	192	192
	INNOVN	194	200	199	199	199	199	199	198	198
	OPININ	193	199	199	198	198	198	198	198	197
	WINKN	193	199	198	199	198	198	198	197	198
	MOTIVN	193	199	198	198	199	198	199	198	198
	NOPLEID	193	199	198	198	198	199	198	197	197
	INNOMOT	193	199	198	198	199	198	199	198	198
	OPINMOT	192	198	198	197	198	197	198	198	197
	WINKMOT	192	198	197	198	198	197	198	197	198

**. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

APPENDIX 6.9

The individual effects of familiarity, motivation, and ability on expertise

Independent variable (y):	B	Se B	Beta	t	Sig. t
MODEL 1					
amount of literature read	.009	.002	.312	4.809	**p<.01**
orientation towards newly-published books	2.308	.398	.376	5.801	**p<.01**
MODEL 2					
amount of literature read	.007	.002	.197	3.316	**p<.01**
orientation towards newly-published books	.617	.428	.101	1.443	N.S.
opinion leadership	2.923	.413	.490	7.070	**p<.01**
MODEL 3					
amount of literature read	.006	.002	.197	3.316	**p<.01**
orientation towards newly-published books	.380	.428	.062	.887	N.S.
opinion leadership	2.663	.416	.446	6.399	**p<.01**
retail visiting	.513	.181	.176	2.830	**p<.01**
MODEL 4					
amount of literature read	.004	.002	.148	2.503	p<.05
orientation towards newly-published books	.328	.424	.054	.774	N.S.
opinion leadership	2.323	.419	.389	5.538	**p<.01**
retail visiting	.355	.181	.122	1.959	N.S.
motivation	.159	.086	.116	1.841	N.S.
ability	.574	.203	.160	2.833	**p<.01**
MODEL 5					
amount of literature read	.003	.002	.105	1.891	N.S.
orientation towards newly-published books	.183	.398	.030	.459	N.S.
opinion leadership	2.274	.391	.381	5.820	**p<.01**
retail visiting	.438	.170	.150	2.583	**p<.01**
motivation	.216	.081	.158	2.683	**p<.01**
ability	.568	.189	.158	3.011	**p<.01**

Independent variable (y):	B	Se B	Beta	t	Sig. t
motivation*orientation towards newly-published books	.071	.096	.047	.733	N.S.
motivation*opinion leadership	.311	.107	.207	2.916	**p<.01**
motivation*retail visiting	.042	.045	.053	.935	N.S.

B=unstandardised regression coefficient; Se B=standard error of estimation; Beta=standardised regression coefficient; t=t-value; sig. t=significance t-value (two-tailed); N.S.=not significant (p>.01)

Stellingen behorende bij het proefschrift:

Consumer Familiarity and Expertise
An explorative study of readers of fiction

1. Consumentenkennis is een bidimensioneel construct dat bestaat uit consumentenvertrouwdheid enerzijds en consumentenexpertise anderzijds. *(dit proefschrift)*

2. De mate waarin consumenten vertrouwd zijn met het lezen van fictie 'sec', geeft geen informatie over de mate waarin men over consumentenexpertise beschikt met betrekking tot het maken van keuzes uit het aanbod van fictie. *(dit proefschrift)*

3. Verschillen in consumentenvertrouwdheid en -expertise kunnen goed worden verklaard met behulp van een motivationele variabele. *(dit proefschrift)*

4. In onderzoek naar het effect van consumentenkennis op consumentengedrag tracht een onderzoeker te vermijden dat de operationalisaties van consumentenkennis overlappen met de operationalisaties van het te verklaren en te voorspellen consumentengedrag. Dit heeft echter tot gevolg dat de kans toeneemt dat indicatoren voor het construct 'consumentenkennis' worden geselecteerd die niet alle aspecten representeren, zoals geïdentificeerd in de definitie van het construct. *(dit proefschrift)*

5. Fictielezers verschillen onderling sterk in de mate waarin ze vertrouwd zijn met de werken van verschillende auteurs. Indien een onderzoeker wil vaststellen met welke auteurs een consument vertrouwd is, kan dit met behulp van een herkenningstaak. Omdat het aanbod van fictie echter divers en overweldigend is, is het een bijna onmogelijke taak om auteursnamen te selecteren die op een valide wijze meten met welke auteurs de consument daadwerkelijk vertrouwd is. Als zodanig verdient een herinneringstaak de voorkeur boven een herkenningstaak.

6. Consumentenbeslissingsgedragsmodellen winnen aan verklaringskracht als er een probleemruimte(her)structureringsfase deel uitmaakt van de modellen.

7. Men kan het omnivorengedrag van hoog-opgeleiden beter verklaren indien men zich realiseert, dat deze cultuurconsumenten zowel cognitieve als affectieve leesdoelen nastreven en dat de boog van deze consumenten niet altijd gespannen kan zijn.

8. De boekenliefhebber zal van mening zijn dat het *browsen* in een elektronische boekhandel nooit het browsen in een traditionele boekhandel kan vervangen.

9. Dit is één van de laatste proefschriften waarin nog gesproken wordt over 'boeken'. Toekomstige promovendi zullen het meer zinvol en correct achten om te spreken over 'tekstdragende media'.

10. Een goede wetenschapper beschikt over het vermogen om een wetenschappelijk werk op kwaliteit te beoordelen op basis van zijn of haar expertise aangaande het desbetreffende vakgebied, zonder dat de voor deze specifieke taak benodigde kennis wordt vermeld in het gerapporteerde onderzoek.

11. Het in ontvangst nemen van de doctorsbul duidt erop dat de kersverse doctor alle tegenslagen die zich voordeden tijdens de afronding van het promotieonderzoek met succes heeft overwonnen.

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